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ABSTRACT

This annual journal presents the latest thinking and research on important issues of faculty, instructional, and organizational development in postsecondary education. Essays in this issue and their authors are as follows: "Faculty Development and the New American Scholar" (William B. Bondeson); "Improving Higher Education: Issues and Perspectives on Teaching and Learning" (Maryellen Weimer); "Faculty Development in Out-of-the-Way Places" (Sally S. Atkins, Marilla D. Svinicki); "Interviews with Existing Faculty: Why Do They Leave?" (Deborah Olsen); "Gender Differences in Faculty Perceptions of Factors that Enhance and Inhibit Academic Career Growth" (Edwin L. Simpson); "Instructional Needs of Part-Time Faculty: Implications for Faculty Development" (Christine A. Stanley, Terrence D. Lumpkins); "What Tenure Files Can Reveal to Us about Evaluation of Teaching Practices: Implications for Instructional/Faculty Developers" (David G. Way); "Using Focus Groups to Obtain Students' Perceptions of General Education" (Sheila Wright, Anne Hendershott); "Team Learning: A Comprehensive Approach for Harnessing the Power of Small Groups in Higher Education" (Larry K. Michaelson); "Conducting Effective Discussions in the Diverse Classroom" (Andrew S. Knoedler, Mary Ann Shea); "Not Another Inventory: Rather a Catalyst for Reflection" (Niel D. Fleming, Colleen Mills); "Hard Times Signal Challenges for Faculty Developers" (Elizabeth F. Fideler, Mary Dean Sorcinelli); "Cosmopolitan Communities for Faculty Developers" (Myrna J. Smith and others); "Breaking Barriers: Mentoring Junior Faculty Women for Professional Development and Retention" (Marie W. Wunsch, Linda K. Johnsrud); "Conducting Effective Peer Classroom Observations" (Barbara J. Millis); "Effective Programming for TA Development" (Lavon Gappa); "Reflections on Teaching Courses in Faculty Development: Three Case Studies" (Kathleen T. Brinko and others); "Inclusive Teaching: A Workshop on Cultural Diversity" (Emily C. Wadsworth); "Building Motivation and Cognition Research Into Workshops on Lecturing" (Michael B. Paulsen); "Using Cases About Teaching for Faculty

Development" (LuAnn Wilkerson, John Boehrer); "The Case of Edwina Armstrong" (Rita Silverman, William M. Welty); "Just Tell Us What You Want" (Marilla Svinicki); "The Case of the Missed Exam" (Emily C. Wadsworth); "See You Wednesday!" (Elizabeth F. Fideler, Deanna Yameen); "How Can I Be Heard?" (LuAnn Wilkerson); "Bill Jasper's First Night" (Nick Brockunier and others); "The Return of Bill Jasper" (Kenneth J. Zahorski). Individual papers contain references. (GLR)

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Resources for Faculty, Instructional, & Organizational Development

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Volume 11

HE 027 137

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To Improve the Academy

Resources for Faculty, Instructional, and Organizational Development

Volume 11, 1992

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ORDERING INFORMATION

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INSTRUCTIONS TO CONTRIBUTORS FOR THE 1993 VOLUME

Anyone interested in the issues related to instructional, faculty, and organizational development in higher education may submit manuscripts. Typically, manuscripts are submitted to the current editors in January or early February of each year and sent through a blind review process. Correspondence, including requests for information about guidelines and submission of manuscripts for the 1993 volume, should be directed to:

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POD expresses appreciation to Kent Williams, Center for Instructional Development and Research, University of Washington, Seattle, for the design of the cover for the 1992 *To Improve the Academy.*

Foreword

At the 1991 POD conference in Morgantown, WV, we held a feedback session in which we sought input about how the 1992 volume of *To Improve the Academy* could best meet the needs of the membership. Although the responses represented diverse needs, two themes emerged: *To Improve the Academy* should provide not only the latest thinking and research on important issues of faculty, instructional, and organizational development but also practical strategies and materials that could be readily reproduced for immediate use. Thus, we set out to create a volume that could address these needs. Given the numerous submissions, we attempted to present a balance in content that includes philosophical arguments, definitions, research findings, strategies, practical solutions, guidelines, and cases for use in instructional, faculty, and organizational development.

The articles in this volume have been divided into four main sections. Section I focuses on the context for faculty, instructional, and organizational development and includes articles to help us understand more fully the many dimensions of the settings in which we work. Section II includes strategies that can be used by faculty and students to enhance teaching and learning in the classroom. Section III identifies a variety of strategies that faculty and faculty developers can use in the process of faculty, instructional, and organizational development, and Section IV provides teaching cases that can be used as resources for instructional/faculty development activities.

As we look back on the task we started in October of last year, we are reminded of the many individuals who have assisted us in completing this volume. In the true spirit of POD, this publication is the result of a collaborative process—starting with the feedback session at the convention and moving through the process of reviewing, revising, and editing. The list of those who contributed is endless; and in this short space we could not begin to acknowledge everyone individually. Nevertheless, we do want to thank the associate editors—Howard Altman, Nancy Chism, Nancy Diamond, Diane Morrison, Alton Roberts, and Deborah Du Nann Winter— and two invited reviewers—Beverly Black and Chuck Spuches— all of whom spent many hours reading manuscripts and providing timely feedback to assist us during the review and revision stages. We also wish to express appreciation to all previous editors for setting the high standards to which we aspired in preparing volume 11. We especially want to thank Linda Hilsen and Ken Zahorski, editors of the 1990 and 1991 volumes, for their assistance as we embarked upon this project. We also thank Doug Dollar from New Forums Press for the support and expertise he has provided for this volume. We are indebted to our entire support staff at the Center for Instructional Development and Research—especially Office Manager Brenda Kelly for her support and commitment of resources to the task, to Madelle Quiring for her unending willingness to assist with the word processing, telephone calls, follow up, and proofreading, and to Kent Williams for assistance in designing the cover and making technical contributions to the articles. Finally, we want to thank all the POD members and other professionals who provided feedback about how best to produce a volume that would meet the needs of a variety of individuals.

For us, the publication of this volume with its emphasis on the context, strategies, and teaching cases has provided an ideal time to take stock of our relatively new field—to reflect seriously about what it is that we as instructional, faculty, and organizational developers do and how we can best do it—and then to discuss the results of that reflection with colleagues. We invite you to engage in similar reflection and discussion, and we hope that the following articles—rich with variation in content, themes, issues, and strategies—will provide the impetus for that important process.

Donald H. Wulff and Jody D. Nyquist, Editors
Center for Instructional Development and Research
University of Washington, Seattle, WA
August, 1992

In Memory of Jack Lindquist
(1945-1991)

With the publication of the 1992 *To Improve the Academy*, we pay tribute to the memory of Jack Lindquist. Jack, who most recently was president of a rejuvenated Goddard College, was a founder of POD and a valued CORE participant. He was also an innovative, prolific thinker and writer in professional and organizational development.

This volume with its many reflective and practical articles, is a continuation of the orientation that Jack helped establish. POD will miss Jack, but his writings and ideas will remain as part of our professional legacy.

Daniel W Wheeler

Daniel W. Wheeler
Executive Director
1992-1993

Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD)

Mission Statement

Approved by the Core Committee on March 24, 1991

The Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD) fosters human development in higher education through faculty, instructional, and organizational development.

POD believes that people have value, as individuals and as members of groups. The development of students is a fundamental purpose of higher education and requires for its success effective advising, teaching, leadership, and management. Central to POD's philosophy is lifelong, holistic, personal and professional learning growth, and change for the higher education community.

The three purposes of POD are:

- To provide support and services for its members through publications, conferences, consulting, and networking.
- To offer services and resources to others interested in faculty development.
- To fulfill an advocacy role, nationally, seeking to inform and persuade educational leaders of the value of faculty, instructional, and organizational development in institutions of higher education.

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Section I

The Context for Faculty, Instructional, and Organizational Development

Because faculty, instructional and organizational development is still a relatively new area, it has undergone dramatic changes not only in the last fifteen years but even in the last two or three years. As the focus on undergraduate education becomes more prevalent, as budgets wax and wane, and as the demographics of the academic population change, it is important that we stay abreast of the latest research, discussion, and information in the field. Thus, it is appropriate that the volume begins with a focus on the context in which we do our work. What is happening in faculty development? What philosophical issues underpin what we do? What are the contextual factors that influence our daily efforts to enhance teaching, learning, and organizational effectiveness on our campuses? Some of these questions are addressed in the articles included in this first section of the volume.

The first two articles in this section are based on keynote addresses delivered at the 1991 POD conference in Morgantown, West Virginia. "Faculty Development and the New American Scholar" by Bill Bondeson opens this section by addressing issues related to Boyer's *Scholarship Reconsidered*. Bondeson suggests that academics need to think seriously about the various dimensions of scholarship and the importance of building collaboration into the institutional structure if teaching is to be supported and encouraged. Maryellen Weimer, in "Improving Higher Education: Issues and Perspectives on Teaching and Learning," helps us understand the context of instructional/faculty development by identifying five lessons that she has learned during her ten years of working directly with faculty. In discussing those lessons, she focuses on what we need to know about faculty, about instruction, and about the instructional development process in order to work successfully in the context of instructional/faculty development.

The article entitled "Faculty Development in Out-of-the-Way Places" by Sally Atkins and Marilla Svinicki proposes an expanded conceptualization of the process and practice of faculty development. The authors suggest that faculty development might be considered a perspective rather than an activity and that faculty development opportunities can exist in the context of all aspects of academic life.

The next three articles contribute to our understanding of the context of faculty/instructional development by focusing on various faculty groups in the academic community. Deborah Olsen in "Interviews with Exiting Faculty: Why Do They Leave?" discusses research about how exiting faculty perceive various dimensions of the academic setting and what they view as important in their positions. In "Gender Differences in Faculty Perceptions of Factors that Enhance and Inhibit Academic Career Growth," another study related to faculty satisfaction with careers, Edwin Simpson reports on differences between male and female faculty members' perceptions of influences related to career vitality. In the third article, "Instructional Needs of Part-Time Faculty: Implications for Faculty Development," Christine Stanley and Terrence Lumpkins focus on issues related to part-time faculty and their needs for instructional/professional development.

David Way, in "What Tenure Files Can Reveal to Us About Evaluation of Teaching Practices: Implications for Instructional/Faculty Developers," reminds us that the work of instructional/faculty developers takes place within the context of faculty evaluation systems. He reports his findings about the contents of tenure files in various colleges at his institution and discusses implications for faculty developers.

The final article in this section focuses on students and the curriculum as significant factors affecting the context in which instructional/faculty development takes place. In their article entitled "Using Focus Groups to Obtain Students' Perceptions of General Education," Sheila Wright and Anne Hendershott report on the results of their effort to understand how the All-University Curriculum at the University of Hartford impacts students who have been through the program. The article provides insights about the curriculum as well as insights about course content and teaching effectiveness.

Thus, the articles in this section remind us that our work takes place in a context in which a variety of factors converge to affect the way we conduct our work.

Faculty Development and the New American Scholar*

William B. Bondeson

University of Missouri-Columbia

The author of this article suggests that to address the public's distrust of higher education, we must reaffirm the importance of teaching. He argues that a significant part of that reaffirmation includes a new notion of the American scholar and new, more complex, ways of assessing what that scholar contributes to higher education. He suggests that if we are to re-emphasize what teaching is all about and to help our institutions re-emphasize it, we must build communities in which teaching is supported and encouraged. A re-emphasis on teaching in all of its diversity and a new understanding of scholarship in all of its complexity can help us recognize what our mission is all about and help us find ways to support one another in doing a better job of teaching.

This is not a happy time for education. In fact, this is the great depression. I believe that some day we will look back upon these times, perhaps a decade from now, and we will wonder how we ever made it through. Higher education is in a state of massive disarray. The professoriate suffers from an incredible lack of trust on the part of its public, and the operations of higher education are a source of general skepticism.

There is a growing literature of academic criticism. Charles Sykes has produced *Profscam* (1988) and *The Hollow Men* (1990). Roger Kimball has given us his *Tenured Radicals* (1990), and Alan Bloom *The Closing of the American Mind* (1987). Many other authors can be included in this list. Our society is distrustful of professionals across the board, but it seems to be especially distrustful of professionals in higher education. As a result of Watergate, we really do not believe politicians any more. As a result of the Kansas City Hyatt Regency disaster, we are not sure that engineers can design a good building. We have always had a distrust of lawyers, and the rise of the discipline of medical ethics is some evidence of a lack of trust in the medical profession as well.

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*This article was a keynote address at the 16th Annual Conference of the POD Network, presented on Friday, October 25, 1991, at Lakeview Resort and Conference Center, Morgantown, WV.

Across the land budget cuts for higher education seem to be almost universal, and they are certainly occurring in the state of Missouri. Not only is the state higher educational system in Missouri taking reductions, but the citizens of Missouri, in the fall of 1991, rejected a tax increase that would have helped higher education enormously. Around the state there are two views as to why that tax increase failed, and I doubt that Missouri is any different from any other state in the land: 1) there is a distrust of professors because they are believed to be highly paid already and substantially underworked, and 2) people are distrustful of university administrators because they believe that administrators have created a massive bureaucracy to keep higher education running and to help themselves. The distrust here extended also to politicians because many people believed that, should the tax increase pass, the politicians would not spend the money in appropriate ways. Similar views can be heard across the country.

But, even in these dark days, we need to reaffirm the mission, the heart and soul, the very being of the Academy, which amounts to nothing more than first-rate teaching. It amounts to saying once again that we take teaching very seriously and that like Chaucer's clerk, we gladly teach and gladly learn. A reaffirmation of teaching, however, is not going to solve all the problems of higher education, nor is it necessarily going to bring the enormous amounts of money needed for faculty, staff, programs, and buildings. Nevertheless, that reaffirmation is one way of renewing the Academy, and our task is to find ways that it might best be done.

Scholars and Professing

We need to rethink, I believe, a great deal of what we do. A part of that rethinking, for me, has been stimulated by a most interesting book, *Scholarship Reconsidered* (Boyer, 1990). In that text there is, in many ways, a new model for considering what faculty do and how they might be assessed.

If we are to have a new American Scholar, then we, as faculty, must realize that we are all called to be scholars in one way or another. Scholars are people who have mastered a body of knowledge. They are people who become current in that body of knowledge and remain so as that body of knowledge grows and develops. Scholars are able to see how what they know relates to other areas of inquiry and how it relates to the broader issues of life in general. Every teacher is a scholar in some sense, and scholarship in its best sense, involves professing. There is a wonderful movie, *Lucky Jim*, based on a novel of Kingsley Amis, the great British comic writer. There is a scene in that movie that I come back to time and time again. An aging British don, a historian and the essence of Oxbridge academic life, is having a discussion with a new member of the faculty about what one has to do in order to get ahead and be a success at the university. He talks about the rules, the regulations, how to make it up the academic ladder, how to get to be a full professor. In the midst of that conversation held in the don's paneled study, the phone rings. The don picks up the phone, and in a wonderful resounding voice says, "History speaking."

That scene contains much about what we do as academics. When I speak and when I teach my students about Plato, I have to represent that great mind to them. There is no one else to do that at that time. When I teach philosophy to my beginning students, I am, for them at that moment, what that intellectual enterprise is all about, and it is my vision of that discipline that I communicate to them so that they know about that important human undertaking as they see it in me and as they see me doing it. Simply put, we profess our disciplines. We stand up and display an existential commitment to those disciplines; and, by our act of teaching them, we show that those disciplines are embodied in our own lives. Our commitment to our discipline is our way of saying to our students, as we profess, that it is worthy of their consideration and their time. It is not unlike standing up and giving witness, in the best evangelical sense of that term. When we teach, we represent to our students the power and importance of our disciplines, the effects that they have had on our own lives, and the importance that they have for other human enterprises. At the moment we teach, we are the only connection between the rich tradition of our disciplines and the students before whom we stand. That is an awesome and humbling responsibility, but any attempt to improve teaching must begin with the realization that true teaching is professing.

The Varieties of Scholarship

But not only must teachers profess, they must be scholars as well; and the book by Boyer (1990), *Scholarship Reconsidered*, outlines four important dimensions of scholarship. In the widest sense scholars understand a body of knowledge, are committed to its enhancement, profess it to their students, keep up with its changes and developments, and consider its implications for the rest of human life. But scholarship can be divided into four parts or aspects, and this is what the book is all about.

First, according to the book, there is one kind of scholarship that involves the creation or the discovery of new knowledge. Virtually every faculty member can think of a member of his or her field who is working at the frontiers of knowledge, someone who has made the new discoveries, who has created the new ideas, or who has done the leading-edge experiments. We all know what ground breaking research in our fields can be, and many of us have been fortunate enough to study with those great minds as we proceeded through our graduate work. In the great research universities of the land, this kind of scholarship has been the overwhelming model of what it means to be a member of the academic profession.

Second, there is the scholarship that involves not the discovery of new knowledge, but rather its integration and synthesis. Most of us as graduate students knew a faculty member who may not have been the very best researcher and who may not have gotten all the grants but rather was the person who seemed to understand how the field fit together and where the important issues were located, and had ideas about new directions in research. There is the scholarship of creation and discovery, but there is also the scholarship of integration and synthesis. There are many fine academic minds who are able to take a broad overview of a field and discover its directions and its important issues. Research scholars are often absorbed in the complex details of a single problem, but synthesizing scholars often see a broader range of issues across the entire discipline.

Third, there is a scholarship of the application of knowledge. The great land grant universities of the land have been committed to the notion that there are faculty who discover new formulas, or products, or processes, and then it is the task of other scholars to apply that information to the solution of practical problems in a social context. Researchers discover new facts about the genetics of animals for example, and then more practically-oriented scholars apply those facts to the production of better farm animals. Theory and practice often go hand-in-hand but can be carried out by different kinds of scholars.

Thus, there is one kind of scholar who specializes in the discovery of new knowledge, another kind of scholar who specializes in its integration or synthesis, and a third who can apply knowledge to solve practical problems. And fourth, there is the scholarship that deals with the communication of knowledge or its teaching. All four kinds of scholarship require a knowledge base, but each kind has its own way of proceeding and its own methods. If we are to have a broad notion of scholarship and recognize the diversity of faculty roles, then we need to understand the various kinds of scholarship and the roles of those faculty who carry out these important tasks. We need to recognize that not every faculty member can do each kind of scholarship equally well. Some faculty are good creators of knowledge; others are good synthesizers; others are good teachers, and so on. Scholarship, in all of its forms, requires a solid knowledge base, a deep understanding of the discipline, and an ability to work in it at some level. If we are to rediscover the importance of teaching in higher education, then we need to realize that good teaching requires good scholarship.

We also need to realize that what counts as good teaching, just as what counts as good research, is not one and the same thing across all the disciplines. The notion that the disciplines are diverse is as old as Aristotle, who distinguished the sciences into the theoretical, the practical, and the productive. By the same token, research and teaching are different across all of those modes of knowledge, and it simply does not make any sense for there to be a single standard for research or a single standard for teaching.

This notion of scholarship, I think, is extraordinarily powerful. We might argue about the details of the four kinds of scholarship, and we might want to include other kinds of scholarship as well. But this new way of looking at scholarship destroys the old dichotomy between research and teaching. I think it also might help to destroy a hierarchy of values that tends to place those who create new knowledge at the top of the academic hierarchy and those who communicate it and teach it far below them. The many critics of higher education have pointed out, much to our embarrassment in the past several years, that there are many places where teaching is not very highly valued, where students have little contact with full-time members of the faculty, and where research is the dominant kind of scholarship. There are even places where teaching is relegated to the work of teaching assistants, adjunct members of the faculty, and others who do not have full academic status. Given that situation in so many institutions across the country these days, it is no wonder that the public thinks that academics are not doing their proper job.

The Varieties of Scholarship: A Case Study

If we are able to have a new notion of the American scholar, then we ought to be able to claim that there is a wide variety of things that faculty do and, given that variety, come up with equally diverse means of assessment. To have a single scale for faculty advancement is simply untrue to the diversity of academic life and to the variety of roles that faculty/scholars play in their institutions. This point, I think, can be illustrated by an interesting case that I have dealt with over the past several years. I happen to be the Director of the University Concert Series in addition to teaching philosophy and working in other fields. It is a rather typical concert series, similar to those sponsored by many other universities across the country. We present orchestras, opera companies, ballet, modern dance, solo instrumentalists, etc. One of the things that I have done in connection with concert series in which I take a great deal of pride, is to have secured sufficient grant funds about eight years ago to inaugurate the position of audience educator. We hired a musicologist to join our staff and to add a new educational dimension to our programming.

This person does a variety of things for the concert series, all of which have an important educational value. First, he writes the program notes for each event so that the audience can learn about the artists, their work, the selections they are going to play, and relevant biographical and musicological information. Second, he gives a series of concert previews usually starting about an hour before the performance in which he provides an introduction to the performance that evening. These concert previews can be quite imaginative. On occasion, before a string quartet performance, he has members of the University String Quartet come and give examples of what will be heard. Before some dance performances, he has had faculty from the dance department explain some of the dances, perhaps perform brief examples of the works on the program, and talk about dance technique. These concert previews have a very loyal following, and there are many people in our audience who would not think of attending a performance without attending the concert preview beforehand. And third, he teaches a class each year for which the concert series events in that semester form the text. The students meet for regular class sessions at which he prepares them for what they are going to see and hear. They study parts of the history of the performing arts, and they learn about composers, musicians and performers, styles and ways of criticism. We provide the class with a block of seats for that semester's performances, and they attend as a group. His activities have had a wonderful educational effect on our audience. They appreciate the performances they attend because of his preparation for them, and students find his classes are a way of having experiences in the arts that they had never even considered before.

The case of this young man presents an interesting issue for those of us who are concerned about re-emphasizing teaching, finding new ways of understanding what scholarship is all about, and helping faculty to develop.

This young man is now at the beginning of his fourth year as an assistant professor in the Department of Music. He is very concerned about what he needs to do to obtain tenure, and he is concerned about whether what he does for the Concert Series will count towards his gaining tenure at the University of Missouri. Being on a tenure track appointment is a difficult time for a young faculty member; the anxiety can be quite high. He is well-published, serves on numerous university committees, and has a fine reputation as a teacher. But he wonders, as he might, whether what he does for the Concert Series will add to his tenure dossier. He has questions as to whether his program notes for concert series events will count as a kind of publication. He wonders whether his concert previews will count as a kind of teaching. He wonders whether his class with its experiential component of attending concerts will be considered to have enough academic rigor. If faculty members are asked to be very strong researchers, with additional commitments to teaching and service, then how does what this person does for the Concert Series fit into those traditional categories?

I have no doubt that what this young man does for the Concert Series is scholarship in the best sense of the word, but it should be rather clear that what he does does not fit into the usual categories. If universities of the land cannot accommodate in the notions of scholarship what this young man does so incredibly well, then we will have, indeed, lost our commitment to what the diversity of teaching and scholarship is all about. If this young man is to get his tenure, as I believe he will, then we are going to have to change some standards some descriptions, and some notions of what it means to be a scholar, and then we have to find new ways of evaluating the quality of that scholarship.

I think the Boyer text provides an interesting way of more adequately describing what this young man does far better than the traditional dichotomy of teaching and research can ever do. If countable publications are all that matter, then this young man may have some problems. But if scholarship can be more widely considered, then I think what he does can be adequately assessed and evaluated. It is ironic to note that when he writes his program notes, which require a great deal of time in the library and a genuine synthesis of recent scholarship, those notes are read by more people in a single evening than the average academic article is read in a lifetime.

The Diversity of Teaching and Scholarship

Thus, if we are to recognize the diversity of what faculty members do and to take teaching seriously, then we have to recognize that the means of evaluation are far more complex than the ones we use at present. This issue applies to the evaluation of teaching as well. Even when there are efforts to take teaching seriously, there seems to be a kind of hierarchy of teaching activities as well. Most of the awards seem to go to those faculty members who are able to deliver inspiring lectures to large groups of students. The platform performer often gets most of the awards, and the more students taught and the more basic the level the more likely that the instructor will receive an award.

As far as it goes, there is nothing wrong with recognizing that kind of teaching. Lecturing is indeed a dying art form, and I hope that we can recover an understanding of what a good lecture is all about because it is certainly important. But, we also need to realize that it is not the only mode of teaching, and it should not be getting the only rewards. Good teaching is writing a good syllabus; good teaching is writing a good programmed instruction text; good teaching is training teaching assistants to do their jobs well; good teaching is organizing informative and instructive laboratory assignments; good teaching involves mentoring, guiding, coaching, and inspiring. The range of teaching activities is just as diverse as the range of research activities, and to believe the lecture model is the only one is to misconstrue the entire enterprise of teaching.

Building a Teaching Community

However, if we are to re-emphasize what teaching is all about and to help our institutions reemphasize it, then we need to build communities at our institutions in which teaching is supported and encouraged. I had the privilege of being a part of a small series of conferences, the Wakonse Conferences on College Teaching, which have helped to create, on several campuses, a genuine and supportive climate for teaching. The idea for the Wakonse conferences is a very simple one that grew out of some experiences that a group, including me, had in teaching at a leadership camp in western Michigan over the past dozen years. At that camp we were dealing with juniors and seniors in high school and freshmen and sophomores in college, and we believed that the experiences at that camp were so positive for young people that there might be some way of translating those experiences for faculty members.

Thus, the Wakonse Conference on College Teaching began in the summer of 1990. Seven institutions from the midwest sent teams of six to eight faculty members. The participants were selected from across the disciplines and across the age ranges, with due representation of women and minorities. They came to Camp Miniwaca in western Michigan for a series of presentations on teaching.

Before the conference began, surveys were sent out to each participant to see what each one might like to talk about and what role that person would like to have in the activities of the conference. The expectation was that every person at the conference would either present, lead a discussion, or be involved in some other kind of activity. We deliberately decided not to have any outside speakers but rather to make the conference entirely self contained. Over the five days, we had presentations on teaching in the various disciplines, on teaching honor students, on teaching the academically less-talented, on issues of multi-cultural teaching, and a wide variety of other topics. A multitude of teaching styles was represented, from the large lecture to the small group discussion. There were sessions on educational technology, on using the computer, on teaching laboratories, and on experiential education. I believe it is fair to say that the group of faculty members who came that summer learned something about their own teaching styles and skills and came away with a renewed commitment to improving their own teaching.

The simple device of letting teachers interact with one another, having their presentations critiqued by other teachers, and having certain master teachers as examples proved to be a very inspirational experience. We chose the word *Wakonse* for the conference because it comes from a Lakota Indian word meaning: "to teach" and "to inspire." The fact that institutions sent teams of faculty has had some interesting consequences as well. First, many faculty there got to know other faculty at their own home institutions whom they simply had never met before. It is discouraging sometimes to realize how truly lonely the life of a teacher can be, especially in the large complex universities.

Second, those teams returned to their institutions and continued to get together to talk about teaching during the academic year. New friendships were formed, and new interests in teachers helping other teachers do their jobs better began to spread across their campuses. At the University of Missouri-Columbia, the Wakonse group has met on almost a monthly basis ever since first meeting in the summer of 1990, and they have added to their ranks a new group who attended the conference in the summer of 1991. That effort has resulted in an annual week of teaching-renewal activities each spring. Similar kinds of activities have occurred on the campuses of other participants.

We are expecting an expanded set of teams at the conference in the summer of 1992. We are planning a Wakonse conference for faculty who teach honors students, and similar conferences are planned for the east and west coasts. It is simply a matter of building a supportive community for teaching, allowing those faculty who are committed to teaching to help their colleagues do a better job. It is a matter of inspiration, support, and community that changes our institutions from multiversities to true universities, one not many. Alan Bloom (1987) called universities a collection of fiefdoms separated by parking lots; an emphasis on building a teaching community can help break down that insularity.

Conclusion

If teaching is to be renewed, it must be renewed from within by building a teaching community. This approach may not revolutionize the academic enterprise, and it may not go a very long way toward restoring our lost credibility. But a re-emphasis on teaching in all of its diversity and a new understanding of scholarship in all of its complexity can help us recognize what our mission is all about and help us find ways to support one another in doing a better job of teaching. Harold Taylor once used a most interesting example to make this point. He talked about an ancient group, the Druids, who lived about the time of the Romans and interacted with them. They lived in forests because they believed that trees were the location of the sacred and that life was best lived among the trees. They literally worshipped the trees. Harold Taylor asked what we would do if we wanted to make better Druids. He said that it would be of little help to give an award for Druid of the Year, but it would make all the difference in the world to plant better forests.

By the same token, if we want to have good teaching, we do not need to give awards for Teacher of the Year. That is fine, as far as it goes; but if we really want to improve teaching, we need to build a climate of support, reward, and encouragement so that teaching is nurtured, honored, sustained, and recognized. Creating that kind of climate for teaching will not solve all of the problems of higher education but it will help us discover the centrality of teaching in our mission.

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Improving Higher Education: Issues and Perspectives on Teaching and Learning*

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In this article the author identifies five lessons that have helped her better understand the work of instructional developers. She suggests that the lessons, based on her ten years in instructional development, have helped her prepare for the future challenges of instructional development. She encourages others to consider these lessons, reflect on the lessons learned from their own experiences, and act on what has been learned in order to confront the changing landscape in higher education.

For the past ten years, I directed Penn State's Instructional Development Program, which supported and encouraged faculty efforts to maintain and improve instructional quality. Simply stated, it was a teacher improvement program, but we never described its function quite that explicitly. When I started the job, I was young, optimistic, enthusiastic, and naive. Now that I am not, I have been reflecting on those ten years and what my efforts to improve instruction have taught me and what they may signify about efforts occurring elsewhere with faculty. I am going to talk about five lessons I have learned not because they represent universal truth, but because I hope they will stimulate your own deeper reflection of how we should approach improvement tasks in the decade ahead.

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To Faculty Belongs the Ultimate Instructional Prerogative

Let me begin with a lesson that I learned early on—*to faculty belongs the ultimate instructional prerogative.* In other words, I learned (what I should have known) you cannot improve others' teaching for them. I remember once going to a class where a teacher botched a whole variety of participation strategies. I could clearly see the mistakes and could see with equal clarity what needed to happen in their place. Constructively, and explicitly, I explained all this to the faculty member, and the next time I observed the class, he did not do anything differently. I remember feeling impotent, powerless, useless, but I learned something very important. Just as with students, there is a point where my responsibility ends and, as in this case, the other faculty member's begins.

But I learned something else in experiences like this, and that lesson involves the important role motivation plays in the improvement process. The need to affect teacher motivation raises a whole series of perplexing questions. What is the motivation to teach, and what personal and professional satisfactions does it offer? Are those rewards available across a career? What motivates faculty to teach better? The chance to win a teaching award? The possibility that students will learn more? Are those the reasons we hold out to them when we seek to involve them in improvement activities? What is the appropriate balance for teachers between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation—improving because they have to or because they want to?

I do not have answers to these questions, and I do not see much in the literature that addresses them. We are starting to write, think, and do research about faculty burnout, which I believe is what happens to faculty when they lose the motivation to teach but continue teaching anyway. Our journals are filled with rhetoric about the importance of institutional reward and recognition for teaching but still almost nothing that explores how those of us with improvement agendas must tap, direct, influence, and use motivation so that faculty will implement the alterations we propose.

Instruction Can Be Improved

The second lesson I learned is a more hopeful and optimistic one: I learned that *instruction can be improved.* Some of that improvement, I believe, occurs naturally, the inevitable result of practice. However, effective improvement occurs if three things characterize those efforts to change: 1) systematic efforts to change; 2) careful application of research to practice;

and 3) involvement of others, most notably students and/or a colleague helper like an instructional or faculty developer. Let me briefly share some ideas about each of these supplements to the improvement process.

As I watch teachers trying to improve, all too often they remind me of children playing pin-the-tail on the donkey. Somebody has given them a tail that looks a lot like the latest new idea or hot technique: a collaborative learning strategy, the wimby pairs idea for teaching problem solving, group exams, journals, extra credit study groups. It is their turn; the faculty player has the tail in hand and proceeds with it to the next class period where it is blindly attached to the proceedings. There is no sense that it might belong in some classes better than others, or that it might suit some students better than others, some content better than others, and some teachers better than others. It is a good idea, and, by golly, it is going to get used in whatever happens to be taught tomorrow.

Efforts to improve need to be more systematic than a pin-the-tail on the donkey game. They need to be planned, organized, executed with forethought. I think the systematic approach begins with what I call instructional awareness—having a sense of who I am as a teacher and how I teach. It starts with mundane details. Where do I locate myself in the room? Do I use a podium, an overhead, the chalkboard, or some combination of them? Do I gesture? When, how often, with which hand, for what reason? The systematic approach continues with a perpetual analysis of the instructional policies, practices, and behaviors I use on student learning. For example, if I gave someone who did not know me a copy of my syllabus, after analyzing the document, what would she/he think I believed about students, about learning, about teaching, about my content? This approach ends with a thoughtful consideration of all new educational "donkey tails" in terms of my teaching style (how I teach), my content (what I teach), my students (who I teach), and my classroom (where I teach).

Efforts to improve are also more effective if they involve an application of research to practice. Basically, teachers need to be informed. We have no tradition of treating teaching as a content area, as a discipline with knowledge to be learned, transferred, and discovered. I am continually depressed by the fact that so many college professors teach uninformed of college teaching research.

They cannot bear the whole burden for this problem. If you have ever tried to read educational research, you, too, have discovered the problem: It is not easily decipherable to those of us on the outside, and it is not published in journals one finds on bedside tables. Not all of it is useful and relevant (We could say that of research in most fields, couldn't we?). However, I do not believe that this justifies the uninformed practice of our profession. When efforts to improve occur independent of what we know about how students learn, independent of what we know are the ingredients of effective instruction, independent of what we know about test anxiety (to name three of many, many areas in which relevant research exists), those efforts are not as effective.

Here I must stress the point I most wish to avoid. We, my friends, tend to be equally unmindful of the role research can and should play in our practice. Let me substantiate that judgment. A couple of summers ago, a colleague and I were preparing a review of research articles on instructional interventions, looking particularly at research evidence on the effectiveness of various strategies in changing teaching behaviors. Judith Levinson-Rose and Bob Menges did the same thing in 1981, so we decided to update their review. Like them, we found that workshops, seminars, and programs continue to be the main staple in the instructional improver's cupboard. They wrote, "workshops and seminars are probably the most frequent but least evaluated instructional improvement activities" (p. 406).

Since 1981, the literature on the workshop intervention has grown dramatically. Workshops proliferate. They vary in length, in the topics they present, in the instructional methods used, and in the audiences they target.

And how do we ascertain the effectiveness of these programs? In the main, we ask faculty if they like them. But, as several researchers cited in our review point out, this is the least significant way to measure the effectiveness of workshops. We can and should be proud of the fact that, in general, faculty do like the programs we provide. They find them useful, informative, and relevant. However, evidence like this falls far short of proving that these programs have helped faculty change their instructional behaviors, nor do these data establish any relationship between program participation and significantly improved learning outcomes for students. We concluded in our review, a "discussion of this intervention cannot be concluded without considerable concern . . . expressed about the extensive use of a method to improve instruction with so little corroboration of its effectiveness" (Weimer & Lenze, 1991, p. 305).

What is the solution? How do we bring research to bear on practice? First, I would say those of us at the forefront of instructional improvement efforts must value it, respect it, use it, and do it. Yes, we are, for the most part, practitioners. Most of us have neither the training nor the interest necessary to do educational research. And I am not proposing an exclusive reliance on quantitative empirical inquiry, although more of that is needed in the case of workshops. A great deal of interest has been generated by the

Carnegie report *Scholarship Reconsidered* (Boyer, 1990) with its long overdue call for new, broader, and more inclusive definitions of research. Most of our activities fall within the proposed definitions of scholarship. We need to promote our work, to publish and present it, to treat the improvement of instruction as a content area with knowledge to be learned, transferred, and discovered. The wisdom of practice has taught us much and could do much to inform the more systematic quantitative and qualitative research efforts this field so very much needs.

Building the bridge between research and practice is crucial to the improvement of instruction but so is the involvement of others in the process. The point here is not profound. Teaching requires a large self-investment and with that comes a certain blindness that by necessity protects the investment. I once worked with a faculty member who was clearly interested in having his teaching videotaped, but he resisted for months, announcing he would, scheduling, and then canceling the event. Finally, I cornered him, looked him straight in the eye, and said, "Fred, what gives?" His face flushed, he broke eye contact, clenched his hands, and mumbled the truth: "I'm afraid I'll find out I look like a fool, and I've been teaching this way for 20 years." I knew him well enough that I could hug him and knew his teaching well enough to assure him that the fear was groundless. If I had not been there to support and assure, I wonder if he ever would have had his teaching taped.

The involvement of others makes two contributions to the improvement effort. First, it helps us overcome the inherent difficulty of seeing our own teaching objectively, of seeing it as it really is. The input of colleagues and students allows us to correct, elaborate, and refine our instructional self-images. Second, the involvement of others generally infuses the process with new ideas, alternative strategies, and approaches. They have ideas we have not thought of, viewpoints we have never heard of, techniques we have never seen before. That is not to say all the input from colleagues, the expert opinions of improvement professionals, to say nothing of the comments from students, is valuable, but it is the infusion itself that benefits the improvement process. It makes us think, respond, and ultimately have a clearer vision of what we do and why we do it. So, instruction can be improved, and often improvement is accomplished via techniques, tips, and instructional tricks.

Instructional Tips, Tricks, and Techniques Bless and Curse Improvement

The third lesson I've learned: I have come to see that these *instructional tips, tricks, and techniques both bless and curse the improvement process.*

There is no doubt that much college teaching suffers from a lack of technique, and most college faculty teach from a limited repertoire of instructional strategies. We are back to another consequence of the lack of instructional training both before and during our careers. So, to infuse teaching with a variety of new techniques has a quick and obvious payoff with sometimes dramatic results. Moreover, much of what we propose is often easy to implement, like longer wait time after questions, skeletal outlines to reveal content structure, and less material on each overhead. Sometimes I am almost embarrassed by the simple-minded suggestions I must make to faculty.

These are the blessings—the things that attract us to techniques. But they are not unmixed blessings. And I am worried that the blessings sometimes blind us to the curse. Relying on techniques oversimplifies the improvement process and ends up devaluing teaching. Let me explain how I think this works. Teaching is a highly complex, idiosyncratic, dynamic process. To convey the impression that it is nothing more than a bag of tricks, that getting students involved in a class is no more than knowing 22 participation strategies, belies the inherent complexity of the teaching phenomenon. The idea is easy to demonstrate. I have watched too many faculty in participation workshops waiting to find out the techniques. I have seen them make lists, move out to the class, smile, restate the question, break the question down, ask a different kind of question, etc., and I have seen those smiles of smug satisfaction. They leave thinking they have it. They are covered. They know 22 participation strategies. But techniques are to teaching the same as they are to playing the piano. If you want to make music, you must have them, but you can have all the techniques in the world and never make music or, in this case, get students involved in class.

That transpires something like this. The day after the workshop on participation, the faculty member decides to implement some new ideas in class. She tries one. It does not work. Now in a period of time that does not allow for scholarly reflection and analysis, a second technique must be selected. How does she do that? Pull out the list and analyze the techniques? No, she does not have time. And once that second technique has been selected and used, she is committed to whatever course of action it implies. She cannot go back, erase that technique and try another. If what she has done has confused students further, she must live and deal with the consequences. Add to this live performance dimension of teaching the variable effects of any technique. Some days a particular sequence of techniques works brilliantly, another day, another class, another professor, and another decidedly different set of results. It is mind boggling and makes any moments of success in class truly remarkable accomplishments.

So, to improve instruction by technique alone is to over simplify and underestimate the complexity of teaching and the process of improving it. And when we oversimplify, we devalue.

To put it tactfully, we may be part of the problem, rather than the solution. We all know that teaching is not recognized and rewarded as it ought to be. We agonize, pontificate, plead, and show passion about that. We know that it is more than the issue of money. It is a question of value, of seeing teaching as being something other than a second-class citizen, a weaker sibling to research. It is the recognition that teaching done well requires effort, that for most, it is no miracle, no gift, but the consummation of dedicated determination, of wrestling with difficulties, of agonizing rounds of trial and error. At its best it is like research at its best: the culmination of concerted effort sprinkled with moments of inspiration and sheer artistry. To see teaching only as techniques, tricks, and tips devalues. It narrows, bounds, and constrains unnecessarily the broad vision of the phenomenon necessary if we are to understand truly the process of improving it.

Instructional Improvement is a Difficult Process

The next lesson I have learned is closely connected to the issues of technique in the instructional improvement process: *instructional improvement is a difficult process.* It requires determination, concerted effort, and hard work. And, it is not well understood. Some would beg to disagree, but as a practitioner faced with a faculty member who needs to improve, let me identify the questions for which I am still looking for answers. Let's say an anonymous faculty member has a number of teaching problems. He (it could be a she) lectures. There is no student participation or involvement in class. His board work is sloppy, illegible, not well organized. His examples are dated. He speaks fondly of Ike, does not think anybody has really made a movie since Bogie. He tests infrequently, misses office hours regularly, thinks student evaluations are a crock. I said he was anonymous, but I will bet I could find him at your institution. Let us say he comes to you and admits things are not going well. He would like your advice on how he might teach more effectively. What do you say? Which of the problems mentioned should he tackle first? Does it matter? I think it does, but I do not know that for a fact. If he tries something and fails, how does that failure affect his commitment to try something else?

Let's imagine that he has had some sort of conversion experience. Maybe the division chair sent him to a conference on teaching; more likely the chair told him he was not going to get a raise until he did something about his student evaluations. Whatever precipitated the conversion, he wants to change. Realistically, how many changes should be implemented at one time? Does it matter? Again, I think it does, but I do not know that for a fact. Significant behavior change seems to be difficult to sustain over time. Should I try to slow him down? Should I recommend fewer changes? How many?

Now let us say he proposes something I do not think will work, like trying to tell at least one joke every day. Why do I think it will not work? Well, he seems like a humorless fellow. He has never told jokes in class before. He does not smile very often. I do not think it fits his style. How do I know that? I do not know it for sure.

In case you have not guessed, I am talking about a forever anonymous real case. I spent several days in my office thinking about how I was going to tell this person I did not like his idea of using jokes. I wanted to be constructive. I was also hoping some really rational justification would come to me. Before it did, he called on the phone and said the jokes were really working out well. I groaned to myself and visited his class the next day. The joke came sort of abruptly, in the middle of the period, and is a bit dated now. My colleague's spouse asked him, "Do you think we should have vegetables tonight?" "No," my colleague answered, "We had the Reagans last week." There were some audible groans but lots of grins. People sighed. Someone raised a hand and asked a question about content, which the instructor answered. It was not brilliant instruction, but it worked. Now who would have guessed that? So I have no answer to the question: How do I figure out what works for what instructor, teaching what content, to what students?

Returning to the scenario, let us change the story so that I was right about the joke telling. It did not work; students giggled—not because the joke was funny but because they felt uncomfortable and could not figure out what in the world happened to this guy. How long should a new technique be tried before it is abandoned? Two days? Two weeks? Once? Does it matter? I think so, but I do not know that for a fact. Sometimes the first time through is uncomfortable; it makes teacher and students nervous, but the second time through is better, and by the third time it is getting good. Sometimes the first five iterations do not work, but the sixth try produces awesome results.

My scenario is a microcosm. It is a set of questions relevant to an individual faculty member at a given point in time. Think about the improvement process across an entire career. Most of us know we were not very good when we began. But when do our talents peak (maybe plateau is a better term)? Sometimes they decline, for all of us, but certainly more precipitously for some than others. Why? Under what conditions? Some of us stop the decline, reclaim the lost ground, and climb to an even higher place. But some of us do not. Why? These are huge questions with no easy, concrete answers, but the questions themselves make my point. The process of improving instruction is difficult, and it is not well understood.

Faculty Want to Improve

I have another lesson to share, perhaps the most surprising and optimistic lesson I have learned as an instructional developer: I believe *faculty want to improve*. Yes, you heard me correctly. They want to improve, but their desire is more covert than overt. If you ask a typical "old" faculty member, "Would you like to improve your teaching?" he or she will not answer, "Yes." Rather, the response will be either defensive: "Why do you ask? Did somebody tell you I needed to improve?" Or, it will be critical: "Why should I? Nobody cares about good teaching at this place."

But ask faculty two other questions, and their answers will confirm my premise that they do, in fact, want to improve. Ask any faculty member, "Do you want to teach badly?" and the answer is an emphatic, "No!" In fact, the question makes people angry because it is such a stupid one. Why? What makes it a stupid question? It is stupid because we have all experienced bad days in class, and we know the special kind of hell they can be. It is probably the old Freudian pleasure/pain principle, but I submit it is a place to start. If we define improvement as doing what needs to be done to make those bad days infrequent realities, faculty members, even very ineffective ones, are attentive.

The second question is more positive, and its answer signifies at least a tacit endorsement of the improvement agenda: "Are you interested in how much and how well students learn your content?" No faculty person that I have encountered answers that question with anything but a resounding, "Yes!" Of course we care about student learning; that is what teaching is all about. Now, as soon as we begin to talk about how students learn, we are discussing knowledge with large instructional implications. We are talking about teaching, how, in fact, it needs to be changed. I know that these questions are back doors to better teaching, but those doors lead to the inside of the house just as surely as do the front doors. However, like you, I prefer entering from the front.

Let me end by offering the first lesson I learned as a faculty developer. It is inextricably linked to this issue of faculty motivation, although not all the links are clear in my own thinking. Perhaps we can sort them out together.

As I tried to forward the improvement agenda at my institution, I quickly learned that *what you call it DOES matter*. I had argued with the administrator who created both the name and description of my unit. We were interested in improving instruction, so why didn't we come clean and admit it? Faculty could see through the euphemism "development." Couldn't we just be an instructional improvement program? He did not think so, and I soon discovered why.

Inherent in notions of improvement are notions of deficiency. We improve something because it somehow is not good enough. We are talking about connotations, not denotations. According to Webster, when we improve, we raise the value or quality of something. So Zubin Mehta can improve his conducting skills, Jack Nicholas his long drives, Jamie Wyeth his use of earth tones, Alice Walker her narratives, but who would imagine that any of these skills are somehow deficient?

However, what the dictionary claims and what people feel a word implies do not always agree, and I learned that truth when I offered a workshop called "Improving Lectures"—and virtually nobody showed up. Institutional efforts to improve instruction cannot model themselves on programs like Alcoholics Anonymous where participants must admit they have a problem before they can get help. And we know that. Look at what we call our improvement efforts: "teaching excellence centers," "faculty offices of instructional effectiveness or excellence," and "teaching quality committees." I would venture to guess that we do not have an instructional improvement program anywhere in this country or Canada.

What eludes me is a clear sense of where the line is between an honest portrayal of what we are trying to do and the need to motivate faculty participation. I would like for us to be able to say the "improve" word to teachers and have them understand that all faculty can improve and that most should. Given the fact that so many of us teaching at the postsecondary level are doing so without any formal preparation, I do not see why the fact that we need to improve should come as such a great shock. Moreover, if we understood that instructional improvements can result in greater learning for students and fewer bad days in class, it seems to me we ought to be openly interested in improving.

But I have learned the hard way. I enter through the back door and worry about all that implies for our profession. I hope that in the decade ahead we can endorse that mission with pride and purpose.

I have mentioned before an artist I first read about in the writings of Neal Whitman who had submitted a painting to a juried show. The artist won the "best-of-show" ribbon and was being honored at a reception. One patron effusively praised the painting and was surprised when the artist quietly commented, "But this isn't my best painting." The patron asked the obvious questions. "What do you mean it isn't your best painting? Why, for heaven sakes didn't you submit your best work?" "Well," replied the artist, "the fact of the matter is I haven't painted it yet." I like to think I have not done my best teaching yet, nor have the teachers I work with, nor has my institution offered its best undergraduate education yet, nor has our profession discovered the best way to better teaching and learning. To me, that is a very sanguine perspective we can take as we continue our efforts to improve teaching and learning in the years ahead.

Conclusion

My decade in instructional development taught me a great deal. I would encourage you to reflect on and discuss the lessons your experiences have taught you, the lessons we may still need to learn. And most importantly, I would encourage us all to act on what we have learned as we confront the changing landscape in higher education. Our work is very important, and we sometimes underestimate its value. Robert Hahn wrote in the September/October 1990 issue of *Change*, "let us adopt without apology the language of sermon and parable, of hope and faith, if it helps sustain our belief in the better world to which all engaged teaching aspires" (p. 49).

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Faculty Development in Out-of-the-Way Places

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The authors examine the concept of faculty development by pointing out some not so obvious places where the process of faculty growth may occur. They point to such arenas as institutional research, instructional research, faculty committees, team teaching, writing support, employee assistance, health promotion programs, administrative influence, and academic rituals as areas rich with the possibility for learning. Faculty development is thus defined as an institutional perspective in which learning and growth are valued in all aspects of faculty life.

Question: In which of the following activities will faculty development occur?

a. serving on the committee to design the graduation ceremonies
b. traveling to Europe to work with an eminent scholar in the field
c. spending a summer doing research
d. team teaching a course for freshmen
e. serving as assistant department chair
f. it depends

Correct answer: f

Of course, you knew that all along if you are a good test taker, wise to the ways of social science. The purpose of this article is to expand on that answer and propose that faculty development can take place in all of these activities and many more, or in none of them at all, depending on how they are approached. It is the task of the faculty developer to assist the faculty member in finding the growth potential in every activity, even filling out the dreaded annual report.

In the past, faculty development activities were conceptually confined to such activities as travel to professional conferences, research leaves (as in b or c above), and other experiences primarily designed to further content knowledge within the academic discipline. Then came a period in which that definition was expanded to include those activities that were related to teaching improvement. Faculty development took place in centers and offices of faculty development, assisted by faculty development professionals. How much more accurate and useful it is to think of faculty development as a process involving the entire professional and personal growth of a professor as teacher, scholar, citizen of the academic community, and person, and the practice of faculty development as anything that supports that growth. Thus, the process and practice of faculty development are not the exclusive bailiwick of faculty development professionals, nor does faculty development occur only in workshops. It is and should be a major concern for the entire institution and interwoven into the fabric of every aspect of faculty life. Unfortunately, most faculty (and many faculty development professionals) cannot get beyond the idea that faculty development is something that is scheduled, like a class or a doctor's appointment, just as some students think learning can only occur during class.

We prefer to think of faculty development as a perspective rather than an activity. It is a way of approaching academic life in all its aspects, a recognition that even the most mundane activity can provide an opportunity to learn something about oneself, one's fellow travelers, one's institution. It is the purpose of this article to identify some of the places, programs, practices, and groups of people that encourage such a perspective. This approach requires a multi-faceted perspective, including: 1) all sides of professional development, teaching, research, and service; 2) personal development, mental emotional, physical, and spiritual; and 3) a view of the organization as a system, the viability and effectiveness of its subgroups, structures and processes. It also requires that the faculty developer search for ways of encouraging growth in each facet. If we want to see faculty development happening, we must look in out-of-the-way places.

Beyond Needs Assessment: Institutional Research as Faculty Development

One very important aspect of the role of a faculty development practitioner is to know as much as possible about the faculty on her or his campus. This knowledge can be acquired in a variety of ways on different campuses ranging from formal studies of faculty quality of life such as that done at the University of Delaware to personal interviews with faculty such as those done at SUNY Stony Brook, California State - Long Beach, and Appalachian State University. Many faculty developers engage in needs assessment studies as well as formal and informal interactions with faculty in committee work and consultation. Such opportunities provide practitioners, interested administrators, and faculty themselves a rich understanding of life in the academy. Such information can be extremely useful in designing new programs of faculty support and in determining the effectiveness of existing programs.

Formal and informal studies of faculty not only provide valuable information but also serve as an intervention themselves. For most faculty members the chance to reflect upon their lives and work, to share experiences with colleagues, to express their opinions regarding their own needs is, in itself, growth-producing. Faculty developers who have invested their time and energies in such work report much satisfaction with these efforts. For example, Frederick (1990) reports the power of stories to "break through the distancing walls of academic discourse" (p. 5). Although Frederick is describing the use of stories in faculty forums and workshops, the same developmental impact can occur whenever faculty members are encouraged to talk about themselves and their experiences, individually as well as in groups. McGill and Shaeffer (1986) describe the impact of a simple interview procedure in beginning a dialog about teaching with new faculty. Once the interviewee's monologue is begun (ostensibly for institutional research purposes), it often gains momentum and deepens in meaning, thus serving individual development purposes as well.

In another instance of institutional research as a tool for faculty development, Nyquist (1986) reports using the Departmental Instructional Profile as an entry into departments at the University of Washington. Providing a department with information about itself and how it compares with other departments initiates the same sort of self-reflection as similar information will with an individual. This process is now being instituted at Appalachian State, focusing more on collections of demographic and personal data that help describe how faculty experience life in the department. The departmental emphasis in these instances reminds us that in most institutions of higher education academic departments are the basic living and working units for faculty members. In the university system, departments are probably the single most important influence on faculty well-being. (Hageseth & Atkins, 1988). In some departments there is a strong sense of professional purpose, a commitment to both teaching and scholarly activity, a high level of service to the university, and a sense of collegiality and personal liking. For faculty developers it would be extremely useful to understand how departments function, to enhance the strength and spread the influence of well-functioning departments and to provide interventions for those that need improving. By basing institutional research efforts in departments as well as the institution as a whole, the process taps into the "academic tribes" to which faculty members belong and touches them where they live, thus stimulating more interest than an abstract notion of the "university."

A similar developmental use is being made of survey research at Syracuse, both at the home institution and nationally. Gray, Froh, & Diamond (1991) use a survey that queries faculty, chairs, and administrators at various levels about the importance of teaching, research and service in the evaluation of faculty. The data from the various groups are then compared and used as the basis for a discussion of institutional values. Initially the data serve to focus and stimulate interest for the discussion, but eventually they fade from the center of the picture, and the dialog about values becomes an end in itself.

Institutional research provides the occasion for an instructor to look more dispassionately at his or her own teaching than the normal faculty development program permits. Data collected on a grand scale can be compared with private data to get faculty thinking about their small version of the larger picture. Once a reflective process has begun, the faculty developer can support the process by suggesting resources that might help a faculty member resolve questions raised by the comparison process. Thus, faculty development can be spurred on by what might at first glance be considered a cold and impersonal activity, but in reality might be just the stimulus that some faculty members need to spark change.

Instructional Research: A Sneaky Way into the Classroom

A common question for faculty developers is how to get faculty members to participate in all the wonderful activities available. There are many reasons why faculty do not participate, some having to with time commitments, but more having to do with perceptions. Faculty development activities are often perceived as remedial or for the other person. Some faculty who would be interested in receiving feedback or information about teaching will not do it for themselves, but they might do it for someone else. For example, programs that are publicized as research projects looking at different variables in teaching and learning will lure many faculty into participating in order to "help out the project." In the course of that participation they often get interesting information about their teaching that they would not otherwise be able to request. In addition, because research is a highly valued activity on some campuses, participation in research is also valued. Faculty members who would not be willing to participate in a learning activity about testing are often willing to participate in some research on testing.

Faculty Committees: Purgatory or Possibility?

There are few faculty who enjoy serving on committees, probably because most academic committees are poorly organized with unclear goals and fuzzy leadership. However, serving on a committee can be a wonderful development opportunity if approached in the appropriate way. Whether in the Faculty Senate, in search committees, in curriculum review committees, or in the processes of strategic planning, faculty serving in these capacities have the opportunity for important learning. Seeing the "big picture" of the university is tremendously helpful to faculty; stepping outside the department and the discipline to be exposed to the necessarily differing views held by other faculty provides an expanded perspective on faculty issues. These committees are the faculty equivalent of a "liberal education," an exposure to more than just a narrow field of specialization.

Committees within the department can serve an equally broadening function, albeit in a narrower area. Grappling with the question of why certain courses should be required forces faculty members to examine the field and its requirements more explicitly. Setting time and space allocations is a lesson in priority-setting that should reflect the values of the department. Admissions committees see the raw materials and decide what variables make for success in the field, thereby determining the quality of students and classes for years at a time. Looking at departmental committees as a necessary evil misses the degree to which such committee experiences can educate the faculty as well as serve the department.

Unfortunately, a lot of faculty committees are not well-run. And so another faculty development task of committee service is the possibility of helping faculty learn to contribute to, organize and run a committee. The importance of group process, work and time organization, and the variety of necessary and contributing roles performed by individuals in groups are, in general, poorly understood by faculty. Were faculty development programs to provide information on ways of improving committee work, participating faculty might then begin to view committees as learning opportunities rather than drudgery. In addition, the ability to lead or contribute to a well-organized committee can put a faculty member in line for more important committee work in the future.

Assisting Others Helps the Helper

There is an old adage that says that "those who teach, learn twice." The same is true for faculty development. When faculty members participate as leaders in various faculty development programs, they themselves are developed. For example, working with the Faculty Senate in the orientation of new faculty members is a very important opportunity for faculty development. Programs that provide new faculty with a clear understanding of the culture of the institution, with expectations for new faculty and with an opportunity to meet new colleagues, can go a long way toward facilitating adjustment to the life of a professor. At the same time, those experienced faculty who organize and present such programs have the opportunity to re-examine their own lives as faculty members. Individual follow-up with new faculty members can further enhance their adjustment. When senior faculty are involved in the mentoring process, they begin to look at teaching with new eyes.

Team-Teaching

One of the simplest and most effective forms of faculty development is the opportunity for team-teaching. In sharing the responsibilities for designing, organizing, teaching, and evaluating a class, professors have the opportunity to learn a lot about their own teaching practices as well as to observe new ones. The sharing of respective information and expertise provides further learning opportunities. Particularly valuable to faculty, who typically are trained in narrowly-focused disciplines, are the opportunities for team-teaching with someone from a different discipline. Curricular reform, designed to reflect society's needs for professionals who have interdisciplinary training, offers opportunities for the side benefit of faculty development. Special programs, such as women's studies, Asian studies, or honors programs often offer such opportunities.

Freshman Seminar

One of the most exciting pockets of faculty development on many campuses is the freshman seminar course. Designed to orient freshmen to academic life and to the culture of the university, such programs typically involve faculty from all areas of the university, gathered together with a common purpose. Faculty members often meet regularly, sharing various teaching strategies, deciding on common content, and reflecting on their experiences. Because the course requires involvement in many aspects of university life as well as personal involvement with students, many faculty are required for the first time to step outside their accustomed classroom role and disciplinary expertise. This experience provides opportunities to gain new perspectives, new teaching methods, and new ways of relating to students. The context of the freshman seminar combines the advantages of participation in both university-wide activities and team-teaching.

Writing Support

Because the pressure to write and publish is inherent in faculty life, support for these efforts can provide a common meeting ground for faculty from diverse fields of training. Suggestions about how such groups might operate and useful information for the writing process can be found in Boice's book, *Professors as Writers* (1990). Ongoing writing support groups not only provide help in the writing/publishing process but also encourage faculty interaction and community building.

Faculty as Persons

Some of the most effective faculty development occurs in those areas of the institution that support the well-being of the whole person. For faculty, many of whom already have an inclination towards an over-emphasis on intellectual pursuits, support for physical and emotional well-being can be extremely meaningful. Employee assistance services, in which institutional employees receive services such as personal counseling, assessment, or referral at no cost or at reduced prices have long been used in industry because of their documented effectiveness in saving money, reducing employee absences, and increasing productivity. In recent years a number of universities have seen the value of such programs, establishing them specifically for university employees or expanding existing counseling programs designed for students to include services for staff and faculty.

An exciting development on many college and university campuses is the creation of health promotion and wellness programs, often with specific services for faculty and staff. These programs typically emphasize living healthy and well-balanced lifestyles. One such program, designed exclusively for staff and faculty at Appalachian State University, includes a range of activities to promote fitness and physical as well as emotional well-being. Appalachian also offers another unusual faculty development support for personal development. Through the financial support of Appalachian's Hubbard Center for Faculty Development, funds are provided to underwrite faculty involvement in offerings of the university's Outdoor Program. Faculty are thus encouraged to participate in a wide variety of outdoor activities from skiing and biking to rock climbing and spelunking.

What does all this have to do with faculty development? Clearly, a well-functioning person is more likely to be a well-functioning teacher, scholar and colleague. Through these opportunities to develop all sides of life, the faculty members are better able to contribute to the institution in all their areas of expertise and talent. No one area takes on a dominating role in the individual's life, making it much easier for him or her to view each area objectively and be more open to change as well. Having a well-balanced perspective on life provides the stability that will permit the risk-taking and change necessary for growth.

Empowering Others to Assist in Faculty Development

An effective technique for supporting faculty growth is for faculty developers to identify influential administrators who value and support faculty and to work to further empower them. The importance of the academic chairperson as a faculty developer has long been recognized. Deans, vice-presidents, provosts, and others can also be empowered to become supporters of faculty development and assist in it. One simple way is by providing them with information. Articles and books related to faculty growth and development with important information highlighted or executive summaries of relevant information are helpful. A well-intentioned, but narrowly-trained dean can be encouraged to go beyond his or her exclusively discipline-focused definition of faculty development to see the many facets of faculty life and work that could be improved. Suggesting professional meetings and even bringing administrators along as co-presenters at conferences such as POD can serve to further their involvement and commitment to faculty development.

For example, at one institution, information about the faculty quality of life studies is routinely shared with the Provost, the chief academic officer of the university. This information has included personal feedback as well as information about problems of communication within the system. One outcome of the feedback is that the Provost reorganized his office in order to have more time available for faculty. He began a series of faculty breakfast meetings with the intent of listening and sharing with small groups of faculty members in an informal setting.

Another important administrator is the departmental chairperson, the one who usually knows best her or his own faculty and is thus able to see what particular experiences would be helpful at any given point in an academic career. Furthermore, because chairs are the key links in the communications system between faculty and administration, understanding their views on university issues can be very useful in understanding the organization as a whole. Support for and training of the academic chairperson may be the most important way to support faculty development on many campuses. However, because many chairpersons, by the very nature of the system in which they operate, become discipline-focused and territorial, cross-discipline efforts and system-oriented views must be encouraged.

Rituals, Myths, and Magic

The rituals and ceremonies of an institution reveal a great deal about what is valued and celebrated within the academic community. Convocations, graduation ceremonies, and faculty meetings, both in content and form, mirror the priorities and the ways of being of the institution. In a culture that has come to devalue many aspects of higher education, it is more important than ever that those within the academy are clear about their own values. As the historian, Page Smith (1990), has pointed out, human beings, from the primitive tribe to the cultures of the modern world, have among their most basic needs the need to celebrate. Without this power to celebrate, he suggests, we are greatly diminished and suffer a kind of illness of the soul.

Further, according to William Harman (1987), rituals almost always accompany transitions from one situation to another. Many of our academic rituals, such as graduation, celebrate the transitions and accomplishments of our students. Others celebrate those qualities of academic life that we value, such as wisdom, creativity, and passion for learning. For faculty, such rituals can serve to reaffirm a sense of pride in their work. They also provide reminders that beyond our individual differences of personality, academic discipline, and teaching styles, we are all engaged in a common and important purpose.

However, the pace and style of life at many institutions overlook the importance of this ritual. Many faculty are unaware of how the various celebrations of the institution came to be and do not understand the significance of the symbols that surround them. Part of the faculty developer's task may be to serve as the conduit of knowledge about the traditions and rituals of the institution from one generation of faculty to the next. Initiation into those mysteries can serve as a welcoming into the academic community for new faculty. Acknowledgment of events worthy of celebration in the lives of the faculty themselves also offers an opportunity for each to reflect on his or her purpose. Many faculty development programs feature award-winning faculty in print or in person as a way of both acknowledging their achievements and stimulating the reflection of others.

Conclusion

There are many ways of conceiving of faculty development and many places where it can occur. Just as faculty and students need to be open to change, our profession should be aware of change in our own ways of doing things. It is almost impossible to predict what activity, bit of information, or seemingly inconsequential tidbit will serve as the spark for growth. We can only be sure that we cannot be sure. Our best strategy is to be as creative and open-eyed as possible so that when we look at all activities of the faculty, we see the development possibilities they offer and then help the faculty see them as well.

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Interviews with Exiting Faculty: Why Do They Leave?

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Fourteen faculty terminating their appointments at a large public research university for reasons other than retirement were interviewed and administered a questionnaire. Findings indicate that a number of aspects of the work environment appear to be particularly important to faculty attitudes about the university: support of colleagues in the same research area; rewards for teaching; the relationship between salary and merit; resources for research; and the location of the institution. The paper discusses these findings in the context of the larger ongoing debate about the relationship between teaching and research and offers suggestions for improving faculty productivity and morale by addressing some of the issues identified by exiting faculty.

As recent literature attests, the diversity of talents and interests that faculty bring to their work strengthens and enriches academic institutions, enabling them to be effective at the myriad tasks required by society, and, in particular, required of research universities (Rice, 1991). At the same time, there is concern that definitions of scholarship are becoming increasingly narrow and fail to include the contributions to learning and knowledge made by those whose intellectual energies are more focused on the classroom than on publication and research (Boyer, 1990; Rice, 1991). From an institutional perspective, the failure to translate a philosophical and ethical commitment to diverse forms of scholarship into a tangible reward system that reflects that commitment can have a number of consequences. Perhaps most notable is the loss of talented faculty who feel out of place or unrecognized by a monolithic reward system that does not appreciate the natural variation of interests and skills across individuals and even over the course of a highly productive career. Faculty who do not feel aligned with their institution's priorities may no longer participate actively in its functioning or may even choose to leave.

Although some attrition is inevitable, and even desirable, the costs of faculty turnover are high. It is estimated that for faculty members employed at the professional level, the cost of turnover is roughly equivalent to their annual salary (Esty, 1990).[1] Furthermore, turnover can exercise less tangible but potentially more damaging effects, leading to a general erosion of morale, loss of commitment to the institution, and further turnover (Esty, 1990). Perhaps the most compelling reason for administrators and faculty development consultants to examine the underlying causes of turnover, however, is that many of the causes reside within the work environment and are "fixable"—i.e., features of the work environment can be changed to enhance faculty productivity, commitment, and satisfaction (McGee & Ford, 1987).

Although a number of factors that affect turnover and job satisfaction have been proposed in the literature, certain characteristics of the work environment appear to be key, including: 1) communication between administrators and faculty; 2) availability of resources; 3) support of colleagues; 4) workload, particularly the amount of teaching required; 5) feedback about role expectations and performance; (6) participation in decision-making; and 7) opportunities for promotion (McGee & Ford, 1987; McKenna & Sikula, 1981; Neal, 1984; Steers & Mowday, 1981). Whether dissatisfaction results in a decision to leave is further moderated by the availability of alternative faculty positions.

With these factors as starting points, we decided to interview exiting faculty (faculty terminating their appointments at the university for reasons other than retirement) to understand more clearly and specifically why faculty leave and to what extent teaching is an issue shaping their decisions. Ultimately, we hoped learning more about the problems that precipitate faculty's departure from the university would enable the institution to become more responsive to a greater range of faculty needs and interests and broaden notions of productivity and scholarship.

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[1] Such estimates do not take into account set-up funds and other costs uniquely associated with academics.

Method

Sample

All deans and chairs were contacted and asked to submit the names of faculty members terminating their appointments for reasons other than retirement at the end of the 1990-1991 academic year. The 17 individuals so identified were contacted by letter and asked to participate in a study of exiting faculty. Two faculty were no longer on campus, and one refused to participate.

Of the sample of 14 faculty participants, about 80% were male and 60% untenured. A majority of the untenured faculty leaving the institution anticipated not receiving tenure or were unsure of the outcome of tenure review (the opportunity to submit tenure materials was available to them). They represented four schools on campus: Arts and Sciences, Business, Law, and Public and Environmental Affairs.

Measures

An extensive semi-structured interview and a questionnaire were administered to faculty participants. Interview questions focused on the job characteristics cited in the literature as having the greatest impact on faculty turnover, and faculty were asked directly about their reasons for leaving, their perceptions of the current job market in their field, and the type of institution at which they were taking a new position. Participants' responses in the interview data were coded using categories derived from previous research on faculty careers (data could be reliably coded into categories by two different interviewers). Questionnaires included global and facet-specific measures of job satisfaction as well as a series of questions about university policies and faculty development programs (Quinn & Staines, 1979). A few topics (e.g., salary and participation in decision-making) were addressed in both instruments.

Results

The results of the questionnaires and interviews were combined to provide insights about the exiting faculty members' reasons for leaving the university. The major categories identified for discussion of the results include: 1) work environment; 2) teaching and research; 3) review procedures and participation in decision-making; 4) salary; 5) overall job satisfaction; and 6) places for relocation and reasons for choices.

Work Environment - Support and Resources

One might expect faculty leaving their appointments at a university to be fairly critical of the overall work environment. Interestingly, however, although about one-third of the faculty described the work environment as "negative," an almost equal number described it as "positive." Moreover, about 25% of the sample distinguished between a positive and supportive "social" environment and an impoverished and isolated "professional" environment. As one faculty member put it, " It's difficult to say. . . the people are wonderful and friendly and at the same time the institutional culture is not congenial, not supportive of my brand of work. It is kind of odd being comfortable with the people and uncomfortable with the professional status." This same distinction became apparent in questionnaire data where there were substantially higher mean ratings for the personal than the intellectual environment of the department and university.

The exiting faculty cited two primary reasons for reporting a negative or mixed departmental experience: conflicts/divisions within the department and, especially, a lack of colleagues in the same research area. One faculty member expressed the reaction in the following way:

> It's very difficult for 'Junior Joe' in a department where other faculty are not interested in their field—have no interest in talking about it. There's no local network. But you know, even the people in related areas don't really talk—you can't get a brown bag going. There's really no conversation at a specific or a general level. Other places I've been people have talked and it helps overcome some of this [isolation].

This sense of remoteness was expressed by senior as well as junior faculty. Exiting senior faculty often indicated that their decisions to leave were motivated by the desire to work in departments with more faculty and resources in their research area. One faculty summed it up: "If we could get together as an intellectual community based around ideas and research (brown bags, etc.), this would be a better place to work."

To fulfill the need for collegial support, some of the faculty reported turning to other faculty outside their own departments and the university. A majority of faculty indicated, for instance, that they had some contact with faculty in other departments, generally related to research. By far, however, faculty felt their greatest professional support derived from outside the university, especially from scholars and collaborators in the same field. Faculty questionnaire ratings indicated, on average, substantially greater satisfaction with the recognition from the discipline than the recognition from the university.

Despite the perceived lack of collegial support within their specialty areas, most faculty felt that they were able to discuss problems related to their career with their chair or someone else in the department. Junior faculty indicated, however, that "There's always a sense that you have to be careful who you talk to. You want to maintain a good impression . . . 'impression management' is a factor." Communication at the department level was perceived as fairly good, with more of a breakdown between the department and higher levels of administration.

About half of the faculty felt their chair had generally been supportive of them. Chairs apparently wrote letters of reference, helped with professional opportunities and contacts, and eased time constraints through a reduction of teaching load. By and large, support was construed in terms of research—including making more time for research by teaching less.

When asked about the resources most needed to further someone in their academic fields at IU, faculty mentioned travel funds, improvements to the library holdings, and better computer facilities. Faculty responses varied considerably by discipline, and more data are needed to chart specific patterns of need. A number of faculty had received summer support and internal research funds and felt these were critical to their career development. Virtually all faculty indicated they would like to see more avenues for creating released time, more staff support, and more travel money. Not surprisingly, exiting junior faculty were more likely to cite a lack of resources (e.g., computer, graduate assistants, summer support) as having been detrimental to their careers and as part of the reason for their leaving. Significantly, when asked about needed resources, few faculty responded in terms of teaching. Even faculty who reported a keen interest in their teaching did not appear to seek the same kind of resources for teaching that they did for research.

Teaching and Research

Expectations for teaching per se (load, type of courses, choice of teaching assignments) were not a problem. A thornier issue was that of tangible institutional rewards for teaching. One faculty member explained: "My work was underestimated, particularly in regard to teaching. Strong years in teaching—who cares? The year I received a university teaching award, I got my lowest salary increment ever." And, from a different vantage point, one individual said, "I've been the beneficiary of a system geared to research and productivity. I can see at this point we need a broader base."

Despite consensus that teaching should be given more weight in salary and tenure decisions, relatively few faculty indicated they were leaving the university to seek greater rewards for teaching. Nor did many of the faculty leaving choose to take positions at institutions that focus heavily on undergraduate teaching (e.g., four year liberal arts colleges). Although faculty's own professional interests undoubtedly shaped their decisions, it seems likely that findings also reflect the lower mobility of teachers compared to researchers and the reality that it is more difficult to find a new position based on a teaching dossier.

Views of the reasonableness of the institution's research expectations tended to vary with faculty's tenure status. Common complaints included the emphasis placed upon the quantity of research and the need to publish in particular journals: "Someone told me once that all deans know how to do is count. I didn't believe that before; now I do." There was substantial concern that scholarship was being defined by the editorial boards of two or three journals and that, in general, assessments of scholarship relied inordinately on constituencies outside the university. The problem of publishing in the "right" journals was frequently cited and appeared to be particularly acute when: 1) a department or school had multidisciplinary roots; 2) faculty had to incur personal financial costs to publish their work; and 3) faculty worked in nontraditional or fledgling specialty areas.

About a third of the sample reported that their role interests were evenly divided between research and teaching, while a majority described themselves as leaning toward or heavily invested in research. Exiting faculty were also, on average, less than moderately satisfied with the balance they had struck among research, teaching, and service responsibilities. These findings may reflect a mismatch between faculty's investment in teaching and the institution's emphasis on research. Equally plausible, however, is the possibility that these faculty have not found their present position optimally productive professionally and, based on their experience, are working to identify their academic interests more clearly.

Review Procedures and Participation in Decision-Making

There appeared to be ample review of pretenure faculty, but almost none for those with tenure. At least one tenured faculty indicated that post-tenure reviews would help keep administrators in better touch with their faculty. By and large, formal pretenure reviews combined with what faculty described as "hearsay" and "osmosis" made tenure criteria clear. Review procedures may have some unintended consequences, however. As one faculty commented:

> The formal review procedures made expectations very clear, almost too clear. It was very burdensome . . . demoralizing really. Expectations weren't

> necessarily unreasonable. I think they were patient with me formally. I just did not flourish under that kind of a system; it impeded me. I tried to publish in journals that just do not accept my kind of work. Since my resignation I have finished four papers and a book manuscript . . . When I wasn't concerned with pleasing them, I was able to get things done.

Questionnaire data revealed that, on the average, faculty were more than moderately satisfied with their part in the departmental decision-making and with department policies. In contrast, faculty were less than moderately satisfied with higher-level administrative policies and with the limited role faculty play in decision-making at the university level.

Salary

During interviews, less than a third of faculty directly expressed dissatisfaction with salary. Moreover, questionnaire ratings indicated that, on average, satisfaction with salary was "moderate." At the same time, only a third of faculty interviewed felt that salary was tied directly to merit or similar criteria. Faculty comments appeared to be less an endorsement of current salary levels or policies than an unwillingness to spend valuable work time and energy on the issue—more of a state of determined disregard or resignation. One faculty member said:

> Satisfied with salary? Yes and no. This again has to do with the understanding, appreciation, or even the interest on campus in what I am doing. If I had been in [the] Business [School] and got a MacArthur, I would be making three times as much. It's a mix and I understand the reasons. The university has made choices, and I'm not in the area they have chosen to emphasize. I expect I am well paid for an associate professor.

Another said, "It [salary] has never been an issue. It's been low compared to my colleagues, but it's never really bothered me." Salary was, however, often mentioned as one reason for leaving the institution.

Salary compression and external offers were two factors faculty described as having an invidious effect on the salary structure:

> On the whole salary is satisfactory. You always think you deserve more. The problem in our department was that the only way anyone got increases is when they got an outside offer. There are great salary inequities within the department and people judge their value to the university by how much they make. Faculty see less or equally productive colleagues making much more money. You need to reward good people before they get outside offers.

When asked how the reward structure might be changed, faculty offered the following suggestions: 1) establish an across-the-board increment (e.g., based on cost of living) for all but give additional monies based on merit; 2) give greater salary rewards for outstanding teaching; 3) do not set salaries based on outside offers; 4) give increments in terms of dollar amounts and not as a percentage of the base; 5) have more post-tenure review to link performance more accurately to salary increments.

Job Satisfaction

Faculty responses to a standard job satisfaction measure on the questionnaire indicated that a majority of exiting faculty were "somewhat satisfied" with their positions, with the overall mean rating falling below "moderately" satisfied. As expected based on models of employee turnover, exiting faculty demonstrated lower levels of work satisfaction than other faculty at the university (see Olsen, in press; Olsen, 1991a, for comparative data). Although a majority of these faculty felt the university was only "somewhat like" what they had wanted, almost half said they would recommend the position to others. These findings suggest that faculty perceived a mismatch between the reality of the university and their expectations of it, but could still see value in their experience at the university and in their faculty position.

Places for Relocation and Reasons for Choices

Over a third of faculty were going to other Research I institutions. Several more faculty were taking positions at Research II universities, and a few were going to liberal arts colleges. Only one faculty member's future employment was outside academia. About a quarter of those interviewed felt it was hard or very hard to find a position in their field at the time. Consistent with complaints about their present position, faculty most frequently cited a greater number of faculty in their research area, a better location, more emphasis on teaching, and higher salary as advantages of their new positions.

Summary and Recommendations

The current set of interviews, especially when viewed in light of previous studies conducted on this campus (Olsen, 1991a, 1991b, 1992a, 1992b), provide some directions for further research as well as suggest areas of faculty life that could be currently improved. As the literature on turnover proposes, features of the work environment exercise an important impact on faculty attitudes and commitment to the university. In particular, the present study confirms the salience of collegial support, the relationship between merit and reward, informative and supportive feedback, research resources, upward mobility, and location of the institution.

Although comparison of exiting faculty's responses to data collected in our other faculty studies on the same campus demonstrate many consistent perceptions across exiting and non-exiting groups, a couple of differences that emerged warrant mentioning. First, although declining collegiality is reported increasingly as an issue in faculty careers, exiting faculty appeared to feel the lack of departmental colleagues in their specialty especially acutely (Fink, 1984; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992). Second, many exiting faculty perceived the relationship between merit and reward as particularly tenuous and unfair.

Interestingly, as the faculty in this study spoke about their professional lives, it seemed that concerns about colleagues, salary inequities, and the university reward system generally stemmed from a more fundamental need for recognition. One faculty member said:

> The reason I am leaving is that I felt totally unsupported here. . . . Where I am going the people are a lot more like me. Personal style, values, interpersonal style. I'll be making less money and it will be a higher cost of living, but I decided that didn't matter. They valued me. They treated me like I had something to offer. I've never been treated that way here.

No institution can be all things to all people. Nevertheless, the responses of exiting faculty raised questions about how narrowly we define our expectations and values and how we make trade-offs when establishing priorities and rewards.

Results suggest the need for further exploration of the cumulative effects of workplace factors, for, as faculty comments consistently implied, it was an interaction of factors that motivated departure rather than any single issue or problem. Dissatisfaction with salary, for example, seemed to increase qualitatively when faculty had serious concerns about other aspects of their careers (Olsen, 1992a, see also Olsen, 1991b).

As we prepare to analyze the cumulative effects more fully, however, it is important to begin thinking how to address some of the issues identified by these exiting faculty, in particular, issues related to the rewards for teaching, communication of expectations, conflict between teaching and research, and salary.

Rewards for Teaching

Faculty consistently expressed dissatisfaction with rewards for teaching. When confronted with this issue, chairpersons and administrators typically cite the difficulty of assessing good teaching as an impediment to establishing a more teaching-responsive reward system. In many ways, faculty, even those who are highly committed to their teaching, share and promote this view by not approaching their teaching with the same kinds of strategies and expectations they bring to their research. When asked about needed resources, faculty focused on research rather than teaching. Faculty also appeared to expect to discuss research—but not teaching—with colleagues. Research articles and grants were given to chairs or other faculty for review, but not course syllabi or other instructional materials. Further, recently collected data on undergraduate teaching suggest that faculty tend not to read about instructional techniques or discuss teaching with instructional consultants on campus (Olsen, 1992b). Overall, faculty try to advance their teaching by looking at the feedback they receive on student evaluations, keeping current in their field, and thinking about how to deliver information effectively.

Faculty development specialists must help faculty realize that teaching often requires the same kinds of resources and collaboration as does research—e.g., publications, technological innovations, teaching consultants/master teachers. Faculty developers must also show faculty how to wed their efforts to improve their teaching to assessment of learning and documentation of teaching. Faculty should be made aware of the many assessment options currently suggested in the literature and encouraged to select those best suited to their own teaching goals. Such explicit techniques not only document instructional creativity, effectiveness, etc., more fully but also provide invaluable tools for the ongoing advancement of teaching.

Communication of Expectations

Data suggest that some improvement in communication of expectations about professional performance is needed. Chairperson workshops discussing the frequency, formality, and content of faculty reviews might be useful for promoting introspection about whether current procedures reinforce or diminish faculty motivation and efficacy as well as for familiarizing chairs with new ideas and approaches. Data from recent studies on pretenure and mid-career faculty indicate that although junior faculty are increasingly subject to extensive formal review and feedback, post-tenure faculty feel somewhat disenfranchised by the infrequency of feedback and the lack of departmental recognition (Olsen, 1992a; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992). With regard to review of pretenure faculty, present findings further suggest that chairs should explicitly articulate the rationale behind requiring publication in particular journals and possibly identify viable exceptions to this general requirement. One concern expressed in this study is that endorsement of a relatively narrow definition of scholarship will, in the long run, disadvantage academe and scholars by failing to promote the kind of innovative research and intellectual risk-taking that successfully moves a discipline forward.

Conflict Between Teaching and Research

There is often conflict between broad disciplinary teaching needs of a department and increasing specialization of research interests. The conflict was most evidenced in this study by the references to lack of collegial support. The lack of colleagues in the same area of research within the department was a dominant theme throughout faculty interviews and was frequently cited as a key motivator in decisions to leave. In their comments, faculty made several suggestions that might be useful for departmental administrators to consider in addressing this problem, including:

- making a commitment to hire more than one person in each area/subarea;
- hiring at a senior level (not the assistant level) when a particular field will be covered by a single faculty member;
- encouraging communication among specialty areas, emphasizing shared features of scholarship;
- considering having some courses taught by adjunct or part-time faculty rather than hiring in an area the department is not committed to developing (joint appointments might also be an option for some faculty who meet needs in two departments).

Salary

In all of our faculty studies, the significance of salary becomes amplified when other forums for feedback and recognition are absent and when faculty are experiencing other problems at the institution (Olsen 1991b; Olsen, 1992a). Findings from the present study further suggest that equity issues—whether faculty can perceive a meaningful and consistent relationship between merit and reward—have a particularly strong effect on faculty attitudes and morale. As one faculty member put it, the current system benefits most the "gypsy scholar" whose talents travel with him/her to the highest bidder. To address this issue, administrators should be encouraged to examine the consequences of current salary practices (e.g., responding to outside offers) and ask themselves questions about who benefits and who is disadvantaged by such a system (e.g., married faculty with children). The rationale behind the reward structure could then be discussed with faculty. Although faculty may remain critical, the openness of such an approach could improve faculty morale. Moreover, administrators and chairs should be made aware of the possibility that they can divest salary and salary increments of some of their psychological importance by implementing more frequent, informal, and substantive feedback for faculty at all ranks.

Conclusion

Although exiting faculty would like more rewards for teaching, teaching concerns did not appear to be the primary motivator for faculty's seeking new appointments. Exiting faculty expressed feeling isolated, professionally, if not personally, from colleagues in their department and, more generally, feeling that their teaching and research contributions were undervalued by the university. Faculty comments suggest that open-ended, informal collegial exchange and evaluation may be being replaced by formal, highly specific, quantitative evaluation criteria and procedures (or no communication at all). We may thus be gaining clarity and rigor at the expense of support and creativity. Ironically, then, at a time of financial exigency, we may be promoting a culture that focuses heavily on salary, external offers, and mobility as indices of success, while overlooking the intellectual and interpersonal support that could foster faculty productivity and retention at little cost.

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Gender Differences in Faculty Perceptions of Factors that Enhance and Inhibit Academic Career Growth

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This study explored the perceptions of 139 higher education faculty regarding influences related to career vitality. Users and nonusers of an individualized career development program participated. Significant differences were discovered between men and women related to reasons for choosing their career, sensitivity to mentoring, and sources of career satisfaction.

Faculty developers naturally want to do the best possible job of meeting the needs of the faculty with whom they work. Because the program at Northern Illinois University (NIU) is centered on self-initiated career planning and individual consultations intended to assist faculty with academic renewal, the desire to understand and meet the specific needs of faculty related to career growth prompted an extensive survey. One purpose of the survey was to compare responses of faculty who had developed career growth agreements through the faculty development program (users) with a characteristically similar group who had not used the services (nonusers). It was hoped that a better understanding of factors that enhance and inhibit career growth might lead to improved consultation techniques and more effective marketing of the faculty development program.

The questionnaire for the survey was based on academic career development literature that suggests that career vitalization can be linked to such factors as reasons for choosing the profession, expectations about professorial work and the nature of mentoring support received prior to and during the academic career (Clark, 1987; Lynton & Elman, 1987). Differences between women and men with regard to these variables have also been cited as factors related to faculty vitality (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1989; Corcoran & Clark, 1984). Thus, the study attempted to examine factors that enhance or inhibit faculty career development. Ultimately, the purpose was not only to meet the NIU faculty needs for career renewal but also to stimulate conservation about human resources within institutions of higher education.

Method

In Spring, 1990, faculty development staff at Northern Illinois University (NIU) distributed a 21-item, multiple-response questionnaire to faculty to determine perceptions related to academic life, work background, professional activities, general influences on academic career development, and work satisfaction. A total of 261 questionnaires were distributed to 87 faculty who had made contact with the Faculty Development Office between 1982 and 1990 (users) and a larger sample of 174 faculty who had no previous contact with the office (nonusers). The nonuser sample was matched to the user sample on the basis of department, gender, and length of service at NIU.

Of the total number of faculty surveyed, 58 (67%) of the "users" and 81 (47%) of the "nonusers" returned completed questionnaires. About 70% of the respondents were men and 30% women, compared to a campus ratio of 74% men and 26% women. Respondents included assistant professors (12%), associate professors (37%), full professors (45%), and others (6%). The average length of service at NIU for respondents was about 19 years.

A Chi square analysis of nominal data was used to determine differences between perceptions of faculty who had sought development assistance (users) and those who had not (nonusers) and between men and women faculty. Interestingly, the analyses revealed few differences between the responses of program users and nonusers; however, several significant differences were found between responses of women and men faculty regarding factors that enhance or inhibit career vitality. This article, then, addresses those gender differences, focusing specifically on career choice influences, fulfillment in the job, mentoring roles, and overall job satisfaction.

Results

Influences on Career Choice

Faculty were provided a series of 15 alternatives in response to the question, "Why did you become a professor?" Each respondent was instructed to identify all the items from the list that influenced his/her decision to choose an academic career. The most frequently identified career influence was "attraction of the academic life style," with 75% of the respondents choosing that option. Other frequently cited influences included "desire to be a teacher" (66%) and "encouragement by a mentor" (51%). "A desire to write and do research" and "a desire to help people" were both identified as influences by 42% of the respondents.

Significant differences between men and women emerged from the survey data with regard to several of the career influences (Table 1). The influences most frequently cited by women were the "desire to write or do research" and the "influence of a family member," and there were significant differences between men and women in the frequency with which these two influences were cited. The largest percentage of men, on the other hand, cited "attraction of academic life style" as a major career influence. Women indicated they were significantly less attracted to the profession due to the academic lifestyle. For men, a "desire to be a teacher" was the second most frequently cited influence, and, once again, there was a significant difference in the percentage of men and women citing this career influence. Although

TABLE 1
Percent of Men and Women Citing Various Influences on Career Choices*

	Men	*Women*	χ^2	*P<*
Attraction of academic lifestyle	76%	50%	9.14	.01
Desire to be a teacher	63%	19%	22.78	.001
Encouragement by a mentor	52%	48%	.18	n.s.
Desire to write and do research	44%	74%	10.59	.001
Desire to help people	39%	41%	.05	n.s.
Influence of a family member	9%	71%	56.53	.001
Best job available	9%	50%	29.49	.001

*n = 139

one-half of the women indicated that they were influenced by the fact that being a professor was "the best job available," only 9% of the men indicated that they chose to become a professor because it was "the best job available."

Fulfillment in the Job

A second important focus in the survey was job fulfillment. As part of the information on job fulfillment, respondents were asked, "To what degree have you been able to do what you have wanted to do in each of the following areas: teaching, service, research, and other creative activities?" Possible responses included "mostly," "some," "little," or "not at all." The two most fulfilling areas indicated by the respondents were teaching and service. About 70% of the respondents replied that, for the most part, they have been able to teach to the degree that they wanted while at NIU. More than one-half indicated they were able to engage in service related to their academic roles to the degree they wished. Less than 10% responded that they had little or no opportunity to teach what they wanted or to engage in service activities to the degree they wished.

In order to examine feelings of professional frustration identified as "stuckness" in the literature (Corcoran & Clark, 1984), faculty were asked, "Since you were awarded tenure or your first multi-year contract at NIU, have you ever felt 'stuck' in your career development?" Those who responded, "yes," were asked to select from 14 circumstances that may have contributed to their feeling stuck.

Of the NIU faculty sampled, 49% of the men and 56% of the women felt "stuck" at some point in their careers since being awarded tenure. About two-thirds of those indicated that currently they were "definitely" stuck or "somewhat" stuck. Several conditions seemed to contribute to feelings of being stuck. The major cause that contributed to feelings of being stuck reported by over 50% of all respondents was lack of funding. Additionally, diminished energy, conflicts with colleagues or departmental chair, lack of intellectual stimulation and lack of departmental or institutional status were conditions reported by about 30% of the faculty who felt stuck in their careers.

Significantly, when identifying circumstances that contributed to being stuck in their career development, women more frequently cited "lack of status in their major field of interest." Other factors frequently identified by women, though not found to be significantly different from men, were "conflicts with administration," and "lack of intellectual stimulation." Men, in contrast to their female colleagues, more frequently cited "teaching the same courses every semester" and "diminished professional opportunities" as contributing to their feelings of being stuck.

The Mentoring Role

The supportive nature of relationships faculty have with peers, or lack thereof, can be a source of career satisfaction or disillusionment. Thus, a series of survey questions addressed the frequency and degree of mentoring experienced by NIU faculty in the following question: "A person who has provided assistance in the advancement of one's career is sometimes referred to as a mentor. Have you had a mentor(s) during your academic career?" Respondents who responded, "yes," were asked to identify from a list of possibilities the functions that were performed by mentors and to indicate whether they had ever served as a mentor themselves.

Almost two-thirds of the total number of respondents indicated that they had been assisted by at least one mentor during their careers, with an average of over two mentors each. Eighty-one percent of women faculty reported they had mentors to support their careers, compared to 56% of the men. More than 40% of the respondents had themselves served as mentors during their careers. About three-quarters of faculty who had a mentor also had served as a mentor themselves at NIU or other institutions.

A notable area of contrast existed between female and male perceptions of the functions mentors served in academic career development (Table 2). Women significantly more frequently cited all mentoring functions listed in

TABLE 2
Percent of Men and Women Citing Various Functions Provided by Mentors*

	Men	*Women*	χ^2	*P<*
Served as a model	42%	67%	7.35	.01
Challenged me to progress in the profession	38%	71%	12.81	.001
Listened to professional problems	37%	57%	4.76	.05
Gave me support as a person	36%	71%	14.41	.001
Provided resources to solve professional problems	30%	48%	4.15	.05

*n = 139

the survey as functions fulfilled by mentors who provided support for their career development.

An area of difference between users of development assistance and nonusers did emerge in perceptions of the functions served by mentors. Although approximately the same proportion of users and nonusers experienced the influence of mentors in their career development, a greater percentage of users indicated that their mentors fulfilled the various career facilitating functions listed in the questionnaire.

Although having had a mentor did not appear to be related to feeling currently stuck for men, it may be related for women. Equal proportions of men who felt stuck in both the user and nonuser group had not received mentoring. Contrary to what we might expect, 80% of the stuck women indicated they *had* been mentored.

Career Satisfaction

As part of an effort to obtain data on overall career satisfaction, faculty were asked, "If you were starting over, would you choose a career as a faculty member?" Choices for responses included "definitely," "probably," "probably not," and "definitely not." Over three quarters of the faculty surveyed indicated that they would "probably" or "definitely" choose careers as faculty members if they were starting over. However, whereas 85% of the women chose "definitely" or "probably" in response to the question, only 71% of men indicated they would "definitely" or "probably" choose careers as faculty members if they were starting over.

When asked about how their satisfaction matched what they anticipated at the time they decided to become a professor, men and women again differed. Seventy-one percent of women responded that they were as satisfied, or more satisfied now than when they decided to become faculty members compared to 54% of the men who were as satisfied or more satisfied at the present time than when they decided on academic careers.

Another item asked, "How satisfied are you with the following aspects of your career?" Respondents were able to indicate that they were "very satisfied," "somewhat satisfied," "not very satisfied," or "not at all satisfied" in response to items about the quality of people at NIU, personal recognition, personal and professional opportunities, and work conditions. The strongest response was related to the quality of NIU faculty, with nine out of 10 respondents indicating that they were somewhat to very satisfied with the quality of the faculty. Participants in the survey also held in regard opportunities to make use of their abilities, pursue their professional interests, have variety in their work, use time as they saw fit, and see the fruits of their labor—all of which , according to their perceptions, were possible at NIU.

When responses of men and women were analyzed according to their satisfaction with specific aspects of their careers at NIU, there also were variations based on gender. More women indicated that they were "very satisfied" or "somewhat satisfied" with physical working conditions (48% of the women versus 39% of the men), available resources (63% of the women versus 53% of the men), and promotion and professional advancement opportunities (44% of the women versus 31% of the men). Salary was the aspect of career with which men faculty were most satisfied, with 60% of the male respondents choosing "very satisfied" or "somewhat satisfied." "Available support resources" was the second most frequently identified source of career satisfaction for men.

Implications

Although this study began as an effort to compare users and nonusers of the faculty development services, an unanticipated—and far more consistent— finding was that differences in responses were much greater between men and women than between faculty who had used the consultation and growth planning services of faculty development at NIU and those who had not. Men and women faculty who responded had distinctly different perceptions of influences that drew them to the academic profession, factors that enhanced or inhibited their fulfillment, the frequency and function of mentoring during their careers, and overall satisfaction. What do these results mean for faculty development programs with a similar orientation in providing career renewal assistance?

First there are implications for faculty developers related to reasons that faculty chose academic careers. Particularly in setting goals for enhancing career vitality of an individual instructor, these findings suggest it is important to seek information about reasons for career choices. A consultant might work very differently, for instance, with a female faculty member whose career choice was influenced by a member of the family as opposed to a male faculty member whose desire was to be a teacher. Similarly, a consultant might ask different questions and assist in setting different career-enhancing goals for female faculty who have a strong desire to write and do research as opposed to female faculty who have a strong desire to help people. These possibilities suggest simply that consultants might enhance their services by being prepared to talk to faculty about the influences on their career choices, to expect differences in the reasons for choices, and to be prepared to take those influences into consideration when assisting faculty in setting goals for career growth.

The findings on fulfillment and overall satisfaction also present interesting findings for further consideration by faculty developers, particularly results about being stuck in one's career. For instance, the fact that the degree of status in the disciplines with women faculty may be a greater barrier to career growth than for men and that lack of intellectual stimulation and conflicts with administration may be more frequent sources of career inhibition for women are important issues to be considered, both in assisting individual faculty during consultation and in thinking about how to enhance climate for women at the institutional level. The fact that men seem to be stifled in their careers more by routine in teaching and lack of opportunities as professionals also has implications, not only for faculty developers but also for others who can make changes in the kinds of teaching assignments and professional opportunities that are made available to men. In interpreting the results of the data on fulfillment, faculty developers should recognize that literature on faculty satisfaction indicates that lack of fulfillment is not necessarily related directly to feelings of frustration. Periodic frustration during the career of most faculty is common. Some feelings of professional uneasiness may in fact be part of the natural career development of faculty. Prolonged persistence of these feelings, however, is cause for concern. In these cases faculty developers must be particularly cognizant of the need to move faculty beyond these feelings. Understanding faculty's sense of fulfillment, feelings of stuckness, and overall satisfaction can provide valuable information in that process.

The findings about mentoring also have implications for faculty developers, particularly since the finding that women more frequently had mentors seems to be inconsistent with literature that suggests that women have fewer mentors than men (Gilligan, 1982; Merriam, 1983). Perhaps the opportunity that women respondents had to select well-described functions of mentoring helped them recognize more readily the process of mentoring that actually has occurred during their careers. This finding needs further investigation. Also, a notable observation was that program users seemed distinctly more sensitive than nonusers to the functions of mentoring. Recognition of and sensitivity to the prominent role that mentoring seems to play in the perception of all faculty clients to the program should be part of career planning discussions. Certainly these findings can be useful in determining how best to mentor or establish mentoring programs for ongoing faculty career growth.

Taken collectively, then, the results have major implications for faculty developers involved in faculty career growth. It is important for developers to realize that the way faculty are guided through academic renewal has a great deal to do with their expectations and experiences coming into the profession and the way these factors are addressed or reconciled in the course of a career (Simpson, 1990). Thus, a brief biographical history may be a valuable beginning to consultation. In addition, it is important to reinforce that the results of this study should encourage all of us to explore more fully the methods of consultation needed to address the needs of both male and female faculty members. These findings should also prompt us to be more sensitive to ways in which our programs are marketed so that faculty will use them and find them worthwhile.

Conclusion

Although this study carries with it some of the usual limitations of a self-report instruments and methods of sampling, it suggests some clear differences in what influences men and women faculty in academic career development. These results are important not only because they enhance or inhibit faculty vitality but also because they affect faculty development efforts. They should be given careful consideration both at the level of individual faculty consultation and at the level of the institution that is attempting to develop or improve counseling and support systems for faculty.

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Instructional Needs of Part-Time Faculty: Implications for Faculty Development

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In this article the authors discuss the current literature related to the use of part-time faculty. They begin with a definition and identify isolation and need for instructional/faculty development as two important issues related to this group of faculty. They conclude by discussing ways that institutions and instructional/faculty developers can address these issues.

Without question, the utilization of part-time faculty in higher education is an issue that has grown in importance and will be with us over the next decade (Bartow, 1990). According to some figures, one in every three faculty is employed part-time—more than 250,000 individuals (NCES, 1980). Various estimates suggest that part-time faculty provide somewhere between 15 and 20 percent of the instruction across all institutions of higher education (Gappa, 1984; McGaughey, 1985). This proportion is even higher in community colleges, the primary employers of part-time faculty (McGaughey, 1985). In addition, Gappa (1984) has suggested that the role of part-time faculty may well expand in the future.

As the use of part-time faculty increases, issues raised locally and nationally related to this group become increasingly complex, and the ways institutions choose to respond will affect instructional, faculty and institutional development. As Gappa (1984) has argued, "The issue of part-time faculty is controversial, partly because all arguments are compelling and partly because faculty and administrators acknowledge that there are both benefits and threats to the institution and educational missions" (Gappa, 1984, p. xiii). This paper identifies some of the major issues related to faculty/instructional development for part-time faculty and suggests specific ways of addressing these concerns. Those issues are best understood if we first clarify what is meant by part-time faculty.

Definition of Part-Time Faculty

For a number of reasons, there is no standard definition for the use of *part-time* in reference to faculty. One reason defining the group is not simple or straightforward is that each college develops its own part-time criteria and policies (Hauff and Berdie, 1989). As a result, institutions vary widely in the way they count part-time faculty. Surveys conducted by many universities refer to this group by the number of positions (full-time equivalents, or FTEs), and not the number of persons filling those positions. Because part-timers are often referred to as FTE positions, the ratio between part-timers and full-timers is unclear. Other complications involve differentiating between part-time, temporary, and probationary faculty (Spangler, 1990). Consequently, there is uncertainty about who is being counted in this pool. Furthermore, efforts to define part-time faculty are hindered by institutions' unwillingness to release information about numbers of part-time faculty to outsiders.

Although there is not a standard definition for the use of *part-time* in reference to faculty, there is general agreement that the term refers to less than a full-time commitment in any institution (McGaughey, 1985). It usually refers to any faculty appointment that encompasses less than a normal range of assigned duties with terms of employment that acknowledge the fractional involvement of the faculty member (Leslie, Kellams, & Gunne, 1982). By these definitions, part-time faculty devote only part of their lives to teaching at any one institution.

In fact, some part-timers put together a living by teaching at a number of institutions, thereby stretching themselves to work such long and difficult hours that they are, indeed, only at each institution for short periods of time. In such instances part-time faculty members do not participate in curriculum discussions, engage in student advising, or find time to pursue the broad and general philosophical questions intrinsic to intellectual environments. Many typically come to campus in order to meet very specific obligations. They do their jobs well and then leave (Hartleb and Vilter, 1986).

For the most part, however, part-timers are characterized by great diversity in their assignments and in their reasons for assuming roles as part-time faculty. Whereas some generalizations can be made about full-time faculty as an occupational group, few generalizations can be applied to part-timers because of their marked heterogeneity (Warme & Lundy, 1988). They include those who have full-time employment outside the university (employment that forms the basis of their social status), individuals who choose to teach part-time for personal reasons, and those who yearn for a full academic mandate (Tobias & Rumberger, 1974; Tuckman & Tuckman, 1981).

Despite the fact that it is difficult to characterize part-time faculty as a group, one area in which some generalizations about the group can be made is related to gender. As the number of part-time faculty continues to grow and their use becomes entrenched, a literature dealing with gender-related issues has evolved. Relative to the proportion of full-time faculty, women are over-represented among part-timers. Lunde and Warme (1990) argue that because of a combination of factors, including values to which they have been socialized, domestic responsibilities, and "institutional reward structures based on the male life cycle," female academics "are more likely than men to become, and to remain, part-time academics" (p. 207). Accordingly, the problems of part-time female academics have been addressed in a number of studies (Abel,1985; Lundy & Warme, 1990).

Issues Related to Use of Part-Time Faculty

The use of part-time faculty is one of the most volatile issues, especially in community colleges. As Gappa (1984) has pointed out, issues related to the use of part-time faculty really have two sides to them. The advantages of part-time faculty are that they provide administrative flexibility and, as some argue, they have "specific skills, experiences or insight—gained through their primary occupations—that full-timers do not have" (Gappa, 1984, p. xiii). Proponents on this side might argue that part-time faculty, via their knowledge and experience, complement the full-time faculty. In essence they are actually practicing what they preach. Part-time faculty fit into the life of the university by bringing to the classroom expertise in a given discipline, practical application outside the university structure, and academic training. They are as qualified at the same level as full-time faculty, but have decided to spend most of their time outside the classroom. Most perceive teaching as an enjoyable avocation and do not necessarily pursue part-time teaching for the monetary inducement it offers (Thompson, 1984). On the other hand, as Gappa has suggested, "part-time faculty are often poorly prepared and not available to properly counsel and advise students, lack loyalty to the institution, and do not contribute to the other two missions of the institution—teaching and research" (p. xiii).

Regardless of the perspective one takes on these issues, there is no doubt that the part-time positions have a variety of inherit difficulties that present challenges not only for the instructors themselves but also for the institutions they serve and instructional/faculty developers who attempt to assist them. A survey of related literature indicates a variety of problems faced by part-time faculty at many institutions that have implications for faculty and instructional development. For example, part-time faculty are often asked to assume responsibility to teach, while at the same time are often encumbered by inadequate orientation, support systems, understanding of the college, perceptions of the students, syllabi, and knowledge of the alternatives available to them (Davidson, 1984). In too many instances they are underpaid, segregated, and generally unrewarded for the efforts they make on behalf of the college (Maguire, 1984). The literature further indicates that part-time faculty use less instructional media, are less aware of campus events, have less choice in the selection of course materials, and are less likely to have access to instructional support services. Two of the issues that arise from these kinds of problems—isolation and need for professional/instructional development—are especially relevant to instructional/faculty developers who are charged with assisting part-time faculty.

Isolation

A major issue of concern is that part-time faculty often feel alienated from their colleagues and institutions (Flynn, Flynn, Grimm, & Lockhart 1986). Many part-time faculty receive no orientation to their department or college. Sometimes they are not required to attend departmental or college social events. These practices increase part-timers' sense of isolation and decrease their commitment to the college (Hauff & Berdie, 1989). Despite being a part of the academic community, part-time faculty are often alienated by their full-time colleagues and in many instances are not welcomed in departmental decision-making processes. In addition, Gappa (1984) has pointed out that:

> Because of the lack of office space and opportunity to meet informally with peers, part-timers may feel devoid of status in the academic community. ... Little casual sharing of information is possible about teaching methods, materials, and student problems. Being denied access to valuable informa-

> tion, being kept in a state of uncertainty about future appointment, and being seen as in a different status by full-time faculty can create genuine fear in the part-timer. (p. 69)

This awareness of second-class status and of the limited opportunities for moving to full academic membership creates a sense of isolation and low morale and may ultimately contaminate the university at large (Warme & Lundy, 1988).

Professional and Instructional Development

The need for professional/ instructional development for part-time faculty has been argued from a variety of perspectives in the last two decades. Black (1981) conducted a study from which it was concluded that part-time community college faculty are in need of assistance in various areas related to instruction. This idea was reinforced by Conrad and Hammond (1982) who suggested that because many part-timers have no background in pedagogy and little understanding of the needs of students, it is imperative to include such faculty in staff develop efforts, particularly as the numbers of part-time faculty continue to grow. During the late 1970's and mid-1980's some individuals were presenting models of staff development programs that indicated that the training of part-time faculty was a top priority (Moe, 1977; Pedras, 1985). By 1987 others had suggested that a prevalent trend was the analysis of the needs of part-time faculty for orientation and staff development (Miller, 1987). Some experts involved in working with part-timers might argue that for part-time faculty, who are frequently hired based on their skill demonstrated in their occupational area, there is usually no question about the instructor's knowledge in his or her field. Shrawder—as recently as 1990—however, has indicated that the problem is that they often lack skill in teaching.

In some instances, the part-time faculty themselves have indicated interest in greater professional and instructional development. For example, a study conducted at New York City Technical College on mainstreaming part-time faculty in the department of biological sciences revealed that among areas of greatest need was professional development (Selvadurai, 1985). When asked in a survey about the factors that contributed to their decision to teach at Prince George's Community College, "personal satisfaction" ranked highest, followed by "acquiring teaching experience for career purposes." When asked what institutional services they felt were important to part-time faculty and how effective the institution is at providing them, almost half the respondents ranked "more effective orientation program for new teachers" highest, followed by "teaching workshops." A final set of questions probed ways and means of improving the contributions of the part-time faculty. The first of these asked in what ways, other than salary increases, might the college encourage part-time teaching excellence. Seventy-three percent of the respondents said that they would probably or definitely attend workshops on teaching/learning issues. Topics of particular interest included student needs and learning styles, dealing with student diversity, and research developments in their academic discipline (Bartow, 1990). In this survey, most newcomers expressed the need for an effective part-time faculty orientation program with substantive content and departmental involvement. The veterans focused on four major themes: their enthusiasm and love of teaching, their need for more information, their wish to be included to a greater extent in departmental affairs, and their need for continued professional development. Many of these ideas are reinforced by others who have argued that part-time faculty want to participate in workshops that will impact teaching performance and seem to be very receptive to an evaluative process that will aid in the improvement of teaching (Thompson, 1984).

Thus, the perspectives of a variety of researchers and experts and the needs identified by part-time faculty themselves suggest that training could be useful for part-timers. Unfortunately, the departments that employ faculty may not have the time, resources, or commitment to make faculty development a priority, especially for part-time faculty. For some reason, although institutions are increasingly making faculty development programs or activities available to and planned for full-time faculty, research conducted by National Center for Research in Vocational Education (1990) found that over 59% of the institutions rarely have part-time faculty participate in professional development activities, and 48% rarely make professional development activities available to part-time faculty. Almost three quarters of the responding administrators from the same research reported that there was little institution-wide planning, and many (39.5%) indicated that the professional development effort was "unsystematic" at their institution. When planning was conducted, the emphasis was heavily on full-time faculty input in planning specific professional development activities (National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1990). Few activities, however, were identified for part-time faculty. When part-time faculty were involved, it was most often the passive process of allowing access to the activities planned for groups of full-time faculty.

Furthermore, when institutions or instructional/professional development programs do have intentions for being more inclusive with part-time faculty, often such efforts are not successfully communicated. As a result, a significant obstacle to the development of part-time faculty is the knowledge of the resources on campus available to support them in their teaching. Analysis of a faculty survey reported in the proceedings from a national conference on professional development of part-time occupational/technical faculty revealed that, for all items in the sections of the questionnaire related to the professional development programs, the incidence of "Don't Know" responses or omissions was high—especially for the part-time faculty. The "Don't Know" response was used by 6% to 43% of full-time faculty. Such responses by part-time faculty ranged from 25% to 63%. Clearly, there needs to be improved communication about professional development to all faculty, but the problem is greatest among part-time faculty (National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1990).

Although these arguments might lead one to conclude that much of the difficulty with developing professional or instructional development programs for part-time faculty is the result of institutional passiveness or lack of communication, actually the nature of the part-time positions adds additional complexities that affect efforts to include part-time faculty in such programs. Among these are lack of staff, financial constraints, lack of interest by part-time faculty and difficulties in finding convenient times (Moe, 1977). Frequently the part-time faculty member is involved in a variety of activities unrelated to responsibilities at a specific institution. Consequently, time constraints are a problem in trying to involve part-time faculty. Often, as the literature indicates, they have other commitments that limit not only their freedom to participate but also the institution's access to them.

Implications for Faculty/Instructional Development

As the number of part-time faculty in today's institutions continues to grow, it is imperative to include such faculty in staff development efforts (Conrad and Hammond, 1982). As such, opportunities should be provided for part-time faculty to enhance their contributions to the institutions they serve. And, as Gappa (1984) has suggested, "The challenge is not to provide parity with full-time faculty. Instead it is to establish clearly articulated, well-understood, humane, and equitable policies and practices that accommodate the variety among part-timers themselves" (p. 97). Therefore, addressing in a more effective manner the needs of part-time faculty is a positive measure in increasing their morale and professional development. In order to do so, instructional/faculty developers might focus on resources provided through orientations, through ongoing development activities, and through efforts to encourage collaboration.

Orientations for Part-Time Faculty

One way for institutions and faculty/instructional development staff to address issues related to part-time faculty is to develop more comprehensive orientation programs for part-time faculty new to the university. These activities should be held at the beginning of the term at a time, day, and location that is convenient for the majority of the part-time faculty members. Although part of the focus should be on faculty members and how they develop as teachers, the orientation should also serve to help new and inexperienced part-time faculty learn about routine processes and procedures within the university that are well known to full-time faculty (Boyar & MacKenzie, 1987). They should be made to feel part of the institution, if for no other reason than to learn to deal with some of the internal procedures and policies (Thompson, 1984). Although there are always challenges in trying to institute such programs, faculty/instructional developers should be prepared to address those constraints and to look to other successful programs for models and strategies to make the programs work.

Ongoing Development Activities for Part-Time Faculty

Individuals responsible for faculty, instructional, and institutional development must also do a better job of making resources available to part-time faculty. Clearly, our challenge is to give part-time faculty access to the teaching resources that we give to the full-time faculty (Bartow, 1990). This challenge can be met in such a way that the department not only supports teaching development, but encourages it so that it will become a priority of the faculty in the department. Centers, for their part, should try to accommodate part-time faculty by occasionally offering their traditional services (consulting, classroom visits, videotaping, etc.) at times such as weekends or evenings when part-time faculty can use them. Continued research on and surveys of part-time faculty could also provide useful insights about how best to meet the needs of this group of faculty.

Granted, devising and implementing methods of faculty development for part-time faculty to enhance and strengthen teaching skills is not easy. The establishment of a professional development committee that includes part-time faculty to explore mutual concerns could be helpful, however. A resource center with materials designed in the form of videotapes or classroom instruction manuals of policies and procedures pertaining to the institution and the department for use by part-timers is also recommended

(Maguire, 1984). These videos could be used by new instructors at later times to help reinforce skills they are in the process of developing. Also, less experienced instructors may actually learn a lot from viewing such tapes. Departments should make these resources known to the part-time instructor. Department chairs should make the names and addresses of new part-time faculty known to centers on campus providing this support so that these faculty can be contacted by the center. Part-time faculty should also be routinely invited to all departmental and campus-wide workshops, events, and functions.

An important issue for all involved to consider is how best to assist females. With literature suggesting that women part-timers may have different goals, different ways of thinking about academic issues, and limited options for career change, it is important for faculty/instructional developers not to overlook the particular needs of women part-timers. The challenge is to assist all part-time faculty with their teaching and to make available to them the appropriate resources to meet their needs. Several institutions have developed successful ongoing programs to assist part-time faculty in the development of their teaching and professional skills. Again, analyzing the elements of success in such programs can be helpful in the development of approaches and strategies (for or a discussion of specific successful programs, see Gappa, 1984).

Collaboration for Part-Time Faculty

Wohlberg (1991) identifies collaboration in faculty development as a particular element that is successful with part-timers. Using collaboration and participation produces a collegial atmosphere so often denied part-timers. With their enthusiasm and fresh perspectives, part-timers have become dynamic forces in assessing curriculum and collaborating on its development. Hence, across orientations and ongoing activities it would be useful if faculty developers could promote more interaction between faculty in terms of faculty development activities (Boyar & MacKenzie, 1987). On a practical level, part-time faculty should be given mailboxes, listed in faculty directories, and included on mailing lists to facilitate communication of services. Such an effort would send messages about the importance of faculty development from the perspective of the chair as well as from the perspective of the center and also encourage collaboration among various groups.

McGuire (1989) has suggested getting faculty more involved in professional activities of the institutions. McGuire, Dean of Instruction at the Community College of Aurora (Colorado) where faculty are 95 percent part-timers, has hired part-time faculty to serve on search committees and shared governance assembly. The overall message for faculty developers is that taking these concerns into consideration invites these individuals to be an integral part of the academic community. It is important, once again, however, to consider scheduling meetings when part-time faculty are usually free to attend, such as during the evenings or on a Saturday mornings.

Conclusion

Administrators may continue to use large numbers of part-time faculty because of the cost, flexibility, and enrichment of educational offerings; however, they should assess the situation, needs, and problems of these instructors carefully (Black, 1981). Research on related indicators shows that part-timers differ from full-timers in age, years of teaching experience, compensation, qualification, unionization, and working conditions (Friedlander, 1980). Such research indicates that continued use of part-time faculty in the current educational process without providing an adequate support program may have serious deleterious effects on the college community. On the other hand, as Wohlberg (1991) has suggested, "If a fraction of the time and energy spent fretting over the inadequacies of part-time faculty were put into supporting and guiding them, we'd probably save a lot on the fretting end. In fact we might even discover a resource to be celebrated" (p. 1).

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What Tenure Files Can Reveal to Us About Evaluation of Teaching Practices: Implications for Instructional/Faculty Developers

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This article describes a study that examined the way teaching is evaluated for tenure and promotion at Cornell University. After reviewing tenure files from several different colleges in the university and interviewing deans in the colleges, the author reported great variation among colleges in the kind of information that is collected and retained in tenure files. In addition to providing the results of the analysis of the files, the author identifies recommendations that were made based on the findings and discusses the role of instructional/faculty developers in assisting faculty in the documentation of their teaching.

Over the years POD members have suggested that instructional/faculty developers stay clear of the summative evaluation process. Summative evaluation of teaching is carried out in order to make personnel (tenure and promotion) decisions, whereas formative evaluation is undertaken for the improvement of instructional practice. This distinction is extremely important because, it has been argued, a confounding of these two purposes by instructional/faculty developers creates a conflict of interest. As the director of a center for instructional support, I see my services benefiting the faculty and ancillary teaching staff (instructors, lecturers, teaching assistants). To that end, my staff and I engage in formative evaluation.

This article, describing a study carried out at Cornell during the last year shows, however, that the formative and summative evaluation functions can be linked programmatically—to the advantage of everyone—including administrators, faculty and instructional development staff alike. During the past year I have collaborated with the Dean of Faculty and several tenured faculty members selected by the dean to examine the way teaching is evaluated for tenure and promotion at Cornell. Specifically, our charge was to examine "the practices and procedures used by the colleges and schools in evaluating a faculty member's teaching contributions as part of the tenure and promotion process and to recommend minimal standards for such reviews. Accordingly, the committee:

1. reviewed the literature on the evaluating of teaching to gain an overview of what has been learned from research and experimentation elsewhere;
2. learned how each of Cornell's colleges and schools evaluates a faculty member's teaching of undergraduate and graduate students; examined tenure files from the schools and colleges; and interviewed each dean;
3. recommended procedures and guidelines to help ensure proper assessment of a tenure or promotion candidate's qualifications as a teacher."[1]

What I would like to do in this article is to describe the method I used as a major participant in this project, explain the results of an analysis of 19 tenure files selected from across disciplines, identify the outcome of the project, and discuss the implications of that product for instructional/faculty developers.

Method

Tenure File Review[2]

The Dean of the Faculty asked the deans' permission to look at tenure files in each of the colleges. Nineteen tenure files were selected from seven colleges and schools for analysis. A selection was made from a pool of faculty who were granted tenure in the period from July 1, 1987, through June 30, 1991. The tenure files reviewed were chosen according to the following criteria: tenure had been granted within the previous three years, the candidate had at least a 45% responsibility to teach as indicated by the chair, and the broadest number of colleges and departments were represented in the sample.

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[1] Based on a report of the Select Committee, *Evaluation and Recognition of Teaching*. Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y. Jan. 14, 1992, p. 2.

[2] *Ibid*, Appendices, p. 17.

The review of tenure file contents was based on the assumption that a tenure file should provide thorough documentation of the process by which the candidate was evaluated, both in terms of research and teaching. It is recognized that there is much more to the tenuring process than what can be put in a file. However, the file is the primary document used to make the candidate's argument for tenure and should therefore reflect a degree of thoroughness and detail sufficient to stand on its own as a source of evidence.

Anonymity of both departments and colleges was maintained in this study to avoid an accusatory tone in the report and to support an atmosphere of open, constructive debate. Discussion of file contents was kept very general. Specific supporting evidence was reported with minimal identification of department or college. Because the discussion of file contents is based on such a small sample of files, generalizations are limited. Conclusions in this section are meant to provide an overall picture of central tendency while acknowledging that there are many exceptions to that tendency.

After a review of 19 tenure files, 20 items were identified as the major teaching dossier components (Seldin, 1991). These 20 items were then organized into the following 5 categories:

Process Data:
- appointment letter
- curriculum vita
- reappointment letters/annual performance reviews
- job description
- personnel forms (% teaching vs. % research, service, extension)
- letters (from chair, dean) soliciting evaluation of the candidate by students, peers

Peer Review Data:
- *ad hoc* committee report
- chair report
- reviewers' letters
- observational reports
- letter from the dean

Student Evaluation Data:
- student evaluations of instruction
- undergraduate letters of recommendation
- graduate student letters of recommendation
- alumni letters of recommendation
- advisee letters of recommendation

Teaching Materials:	• course materials • teaching itinerary (name and number of courses taught by semester/year)
Self Evaluation Data:	• personal statement • teaching improvement strategies/activities

The five categories were selected because they define the major data sources available to faculty and administrators who do the evaluating—students, candidate, peers, administrators—and because they provide a framework with which to match the appropriate evaluation source with the aspect of teaching that is being evaluated. For example, students are an appropriate evaluation source for classroom teaching quality, whereas peers are an appropriate evaluation source for course design and content, while the candidate is a rich evaluation source for the effectiveness of teaching improvement strategies. These five categories will serve to frame the discussion of the tenure file contents in the results section below.

Interviews with the Deans[3]

In addition to information obtained from the analysis of the files, other contextual information regarding the tenure process was obtained through interviews conducted with the deans from June 9 through July 10, 1991. The questions that formed the basis of the deans' interviews are listed in the appendix. In general, the deans were very cooperative and eager to discuss the tenure system.

Results

Tenure File Analysis

In general, inclusion of teaching dossier components varied considerably by college. The number of colleges that had each dossier-component in tenure files is shown in Figure 1.

Process data. In all cases documentation of the tenure process was very thorough. However, there was considerable variation in the way the communication between the candidate, chair, reviewers, *ad hoc* committee, central administration, and students was documented and organized. An important factor in evaluating the communication of the tenure process (Seldin, 1984)

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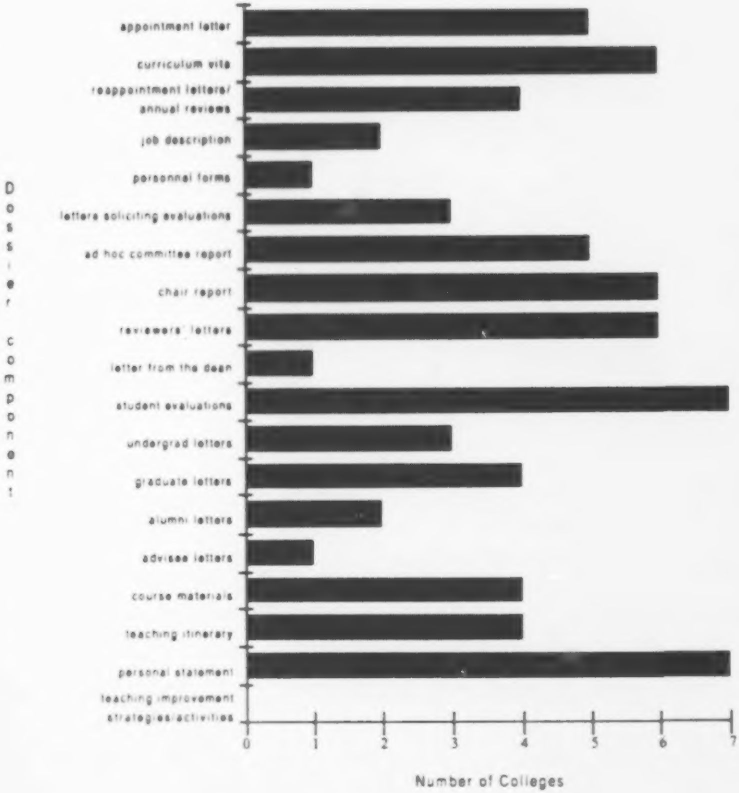
[3] Ibid, Appendices pg. 25.

FIGURE 1: Number of Colleges With Each Dossier Component



is the explicitness of the task the reviewers (peers and students) are asked to perform. Letters from chairs (both departmental and *ad hoc* committee chairs) soliciting reviewers' comments ranged from very general requests to very specific lists of instructions that clarified the criteria by which the reviewer was to evaluate the candidate's teaching (either from direct observation and experience or through review of teaching materials.) An example of an explicit request from a chair that helped focus the reviewer is, "Does the subject matter presented in the individual's courses keep pace with developments in his or her field? What is the evidence?" This kind of explicitness was very rare, however, and was evident in only one of the 19 files.

The lack of specific criteria for guiding reviewers' evaluations of teaching was evident when teaching evaluations were compared to analogous reviews of research and publications. The general sense was that chairs and reviewers were much more attuned to discussing research and publications than teaching. Where colleagues were familiar and comfortable intellectually with the context of the candidate's research and published work, lengthy and thorough evaluations and discussions were the norm. In general the equivalent discussion of the candidate's teaching quality was much shallower, as evidenced in the following quotes from peer reviews of teaching quality:

Internal Reviewer: "I have heard [candidate] speak on several occasions, and he has always been lucid. His enthusiasm also comes through in his talks and it is contagious. I expect that he is an excellent lecturer."

External Reviewer: "I have heard him explain his results and discuss them in seminars. He is very clear and does not spend time on fluff. I have not had the experience of attending his classes."

External Reviewer: "He conveys enthusiasm and is well prepared in conference and seminar presentations, so I would expect he is a good teacher."

The quotes were in a file that had no course materials or letters evaluating teaching quality by any students (undergraduate or graduate.) This example is typical of a case where the primary evidence for evaluating teaching quality was student ratings scores, followed by the very general and shallow arguments of peers as evidenced in the quotes above. In spite of the fact that the majority of colleges typically included copies of appointment and reappointment letters, these documents were missing in a surprising number of files.

Peer review data. Peer review of teaching quality was much less rigorous than that of research. The level of the discussion was often set by the department chair in annual performance review letters to the candidate:

> We discussed your teaching activities and my indications are that your

> teaching . . . is going well and that it is well received by your students. We hope that the renovations of the laboratories . . . will provide opportunities for further improvements in our . . . teaching program.

Peer evaluation of classroom performance was very inconsistent among colleges and did not exhibit the kind of rigor suggested by the literature on the subject (French-Lazovik, 1981; Miller, 1987; Seldin, 1990; Sell & Chism, 1988; Whitman & Weiss, 1982). The minimal degree to which internal reviewers were prepared to observe and comment meaningfully on each other's teaching is evident in the following quotes that reflect a common theme among the files reviewed.

Peer letter, 9/28/89:

> I regret that conflicts have prevented my attendance, since by all reports it [teaching] is excellent. My personal observation of his teaching has been restricted to slipping in at the end of his lectures . . . what I have heard has been clear, accurate and well organized.

Department head letter, 10/13/89:

> I have no direct knowledge of Dr. X's performance and effectiveness as a teacher; however, judging from comments of my graduate students, his [course title] is excellent and has become a favorite . . .

Student evaluation data. Without question, student quantitative evaluation of instruction through end-of-the-semester summative questionnaires was the most prevalent data source from students on candidates' teaching quality. Letters from students—undergraduate, graduate, advisees and alumni—were the next most frequent source of student evaluation data. The advantage of numerical questionnaire data is that they preserve the anonymity of the student, which is a significant factor while students are still enrolled in school and thus in the "power web" of the candidate, as one dean described it. The advantage of the written letters is the quality of the data they can provide: writing a letter provides a student with a more open format to evaluate the candidate.

In one case the department chair took the time to synthesize the relevant comments from undergraduate student reviewers who were asked to write letters of recommendation. This process was very useful considering there were 88 undergraduate letters of recommendation in the file, but it was the only file with such thorough care given to a discussion of the candidate's teaching. It stands as an exemplary case of how a chair summarized student evaluation letters as evident in the following quotes:

> Undergraduates uniformly describe him as an unusually effective, conscientious, enthusiastic teacher who enables students to do their best work, master difficult subject-matter, and gain confidence in their own intellectual abilities.
>
> This [student quote from a review letter] clear and convincing testimony describes the experience of all the students who wrote to us from the courses he taught in spring 1988 and in fall 1989. Since the most disturbing aspect of some of the student responses two years ago was the suggestion that he could be authoritarian and coercive in his teaching, we are reassured by all these letters which suggest precisely the opposite.
>
> It seems clear that like many young assistant professors [candidate] was too demanding in his first dealings with graduate students, imposing admirable but often excessive standards of professionalism both in the classroom and as a special committee member, and expecting his students to share his commitment to his own projects. As the letter from [student] suggests, however, he has since become more realistic and flexible. And all the letters attest that he is always extremely conscientious and helpful.
>
> One should conclude, I think that [candidate] is an intellectually stimulating and enabling graduate teacher, with an expertise and commitment that many of our students find particularly valuable, one who has had trouble finding the appropriate mode in which to exercise authority, but who has now learned to do so.

Where quantitative data were provided, there was great variation in the form in which they were presented. The kind of guiding principles for collecting and reporting such data that are suggested in the literature (i.e., do not carry scores beyond one decimal place, sample over time and course format) were little in evidence in the files reviewed.

Surprisingly, one major source of information from students, the products of their work with the candidate such as exams, papers (both good and bad) and grade sets from year to year, were rarely included in the files. This lack stood in marked contrast to the extensive volumes of reproduced published articles that made up the bulk of many of the files.

Teaching materials. The literature on the evaluation of teaching for tenure and promotion mentions the inclusion by the candidate of course teaching materials (syllabi, exams, reading lists, teaching plans and notes, computer software, etc.) as a way for peer reviewers, both internal and external, to evaluate instructional design skills even though they may never have seen the candidate teach in the classroom.

The inclusion of teaching materials in the files that were reviewed was inconsistent among departments and colleges. Some files limited this data source to a "teaching itinerary" that consisted of nothing more than the candidate's teaching schedule: what courses were taught each semester, from year to year. In the files reviewed, the most prevalent course materials were syllabi, reading lists, and ungraded exams. However, only three out of 19 files contained teaching materials of any kind. This number seems out of balance considering the extent of publications in the tenure file.

Although a "teaching itinerary" may be useful to someone in the department who has taught the same courses, it is not sufficient to evaluate a candidate's instructional design skills, which include preparing learning objectives, creating effective instructional experiences—strategies to sequence, interpret, and present information—and designing tests and graded assignments. An activity as challenging and complex as teaching deserves more thorough documentation than a list of courses taught every semester. Examples of teaching materials suggested by the literature for inclusion in a teaching dossier include syllabi, reading lists, handouts, non-print materials (or a description of them), problem sets, assignments, graded exams (both good and bad), research papers and final projects, final grade distributions, and examples of written feedback to students on their work.

Self evaluation data. Information written and prepared by the candidate providing self evaluation data is mentioned repeatedly in the literature and was prevalent in many of the files reviewed. Some kind of "personal statement" dealing with research and teaching was included in 13 out of the 19 files. Once again, the depth of thinking reflected in the personal statements reviewed about research was greater than that devoted to teaching. This disparity was clearly evident in the amount of space devoted to describing research goals and agendas compared to that devoted to teaching goals and agendas.

Various authors have provided suggestions and guidelines for candidates for tenure to describe their efforts and activities to improve teaching (French-Lazovik, 1981; Miller, 1987; Seldin & Associates, 1990; Sell & Chism, 1988; Whitman & Weiss, 1982). However, the kind of discussion these authors have suggested was not evident in the files reviewed. In one case the college had a multi-page form developed for the candidate to fill out for his or her annual performance review that requested specific information about teaching goals, improvement strategies and activities. The candidate in question, however, had done a cursory job of filling it out. This superficial approach was noted by the candidate's supervisor to the associate dean in the annual review documentation, but it did not prevent the candidate from being granted tenure.

Deans' Interviews

Quality of file information. The deans had mixed responses to the question of overall file quality and inclusiveness. The degree to which they were satisfied was strongly influenced by the degree to which guidelines for file contents were clearly articulated and adhered to by department chairs. Whether the guidelines were adhered to properly was a judgment made at the dean's level; and when there was insufficient information, in whatever form, deans exercised their authority to return the file for supplementation. However, whenever this action was necessary (a situation that was mentioned by the majority of deans), it had the undesirable effect of slowing down the process.

One dean said that the quality of teaching documentation was not as in-depth, helpful or well-conceived as that devoted to research. Another emphasized that *quality* of information was a more preferable guide for inclusion in a file than *quantity* of information, especially in terms of published research. Two areas of information mentioned to be in general short supply were course materials and alumni reviews. The deans were unanimous in their reliance on departmental chairs for producing good promotional packages and tenure dossiers.

Teaching dossier contents. In discussing the items that should be included in tenure and promotion dossiers, the deans echoed some of the shortcomings identified in the file analysis. In terms of personal statements, one dean felt strongly that a detailed essay (with a length limit) on course design and instructional delivery with an emphasis on development of practice should be the norm. Another felt dossiers should contain more course materials, whereas another felt better classroom observation data should be included. Several deans emphasized the importance of having someone (department chair or *ad hoc* committee chair) provide a summary of detailed student comments of at least half the candidate's courses, the courses to be included to be chosen by the *ad hoc* committee.

An important issue in terms of dossier contents has to do with who is responsible for building the dossier—the candidate or the department chair. Better dossiers will require clear guidelines as to data sources, evaluation criteria for all data sources, and a clear explanation of who is responsible for assembling the dossier. One dean felt that faculty should be made aware as part of their appointment that they are responsible for providing documentation of teaching.

Another dean raised the issue of anonymity of student evaluation data. The fact that letters of recommendation in their original form (the prevalent form from the file analysis) do not preserve the anonymity of the student is an important consideration in judging the credibility of the student's evaluation. While students, either undergraduate or graduate, are still working with the candidate, they are in what one dean called the candidate's "power web." This situation may prevent students from being as candid in their written remarks if they know they may be identified at some point by someone in the tenure decision process. One dean suggested having someone (department or *ad hoc* committee chair) summarize student letters.

Overall process. In general, the deans felt that the tenure and promotion process needs to become more efficient in terms of time and other costs, yet more rigorous. Some authors (Sell & Chism, 1988) have advocated the utility of evaluation forms for evaluating both tenure files and classroom instruction. One dean said that the hiring and appointment phase of the process is a more important milestone influencing the quality of teaching than the tenure milestone. Another dean felt that, in general, the deans have to be willing to take more risk rewarding excellence in teaching because they have more power to do so.

Study Outcome

As a result of the study a report was written that included several recommendations. It has been distributed to the faculty to solicit their reactions through an open exchange. The committee recommended that:

- it should be a matter of policy that colleges and departments treat and reward teaching and research on an equivalent basis;
- departments and colleges, consistent with university policy, express equal value for teaching and research by maintaining and supporting the highest standards in their evaluation of both these activities;
- rewards should be developed and policies designed for excellence in teaching and for significant instructional development, including salary-based as well as non-salary based incentives (e.g., additional TA support, teaching aids, etc.) in direct support of teaching activities and should be designed to affect the largest number of faculty members;
- all departments (or other appropriate units) establish a standing committee on teaching whose members would be responsible for overseeing peer evaluation of a tenure candidate's teaching;
- each college should have and enforce specific guidelines governing what must be submitted about teaching in the file of a tenure candidate;
- each college dean establish, maintain, and monitor guidelines for obtaining student course evaluation materials (i.e., questionnaires, solicited letters from students) and the way these materials are reported;
- a teaching evaluation handbook be developed and made available to all

colleges and departments in order to encourage consistency in the evaluation of teaching;

- the provost take appropriate steps to set in motion the recommendations embodied in this report.[4]

Preliminary reactions by central administrators and several faculty members have been encouraging in terms of support for the recommendations. The objective is to submit the report to the provost, after the faculty's reactions have been heard and assimilated, for his compliance with the final recommendation above.

Discussion—The Role of Instructional Developers in the Tenure Process

There is no one way a faculty member should take advantage of instructional development services; it is best handled on a case-by-case basis. Within this latitude, however, instructional developers can review the contents of a teaching dossier with the faculty member prior to submission for tenure review to ensure completeness, quality of data, and appropriateness of format. Not only can this "quality control" practice potentially increase a faculty member's confidence in dossier quality, but it can aid department heads and deans by providing an independent quality control point to minimize the rejection of files because of poorly documented teaching content.

As a resource to (rather than as an advocate for) faculty or administrators within the tenure process, instructional/faculty developers are in a unique position to assist in the data gathering and documentation of instructional development for tenure files. As part of our normal operations, we can serve faculty in three major developmental areas: instructional delivery skills, instructional design skills, and activities associated with general innovative developments.

Activities in all these areas are valid for inclusion in a tenure file as a means of documenting relative teaching quality and development. It is important, however, that the primary beneficiary of instructional development services be the faculty member. Department heads and deans can benefit secondarily through improved data to support the improvement of teaching, but instructional development exists to serve faculty. If instructional development centers are perceived as primarily serving administrators for the tenure system, there exists a conflict of interest. Instructional developers can serve both individual faculty and administrators within the tenure process by continuing to orient their services to faculty, but with the understanding that the faculty member can and should describe in a personal statement the strategies and activities engaged in to improve instructional practice. Instructional development center staff can assist faculty members in all of these steps.

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[4] Ibid., pgs. 7-8.

Conclusion

Although departments can review, evaluate and recommend where teaching must be enhanced, instructional/faculty developers provide faculty and TAs with the resources and expertise necessary to improve practice and to document that improvement. Although department heads, deans and the provost are in a position to enforce comprehensive evaluation criteria and guidelines for tenure file development and maintenance, the burden of adequate documentation rests with the individual faculty member. Instructional/faculty developers serve the faculty member as a resource to ensure adequate documentation of the improvement in teaching practice. If proof of teaching development/improvement is a criterion for tenure and promotion decisions, the formative evaluation process has begun to inform positively the summative evaluation process.

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Appendix

Questions for Interviews with Deans

1. When a tenure dossier is presented for your consideration are you satisfied with the quality of the information you need to render a decision about the candidate? What additional information would you have liked to have had to make whatever action you are required to take clearer, more defensible?

   Does the quality of the information provided differ by field or department?

   How significant is the department chair's role in influencing your decision?

   Faculty are expected to vote on each tenure candidate, and in some colleges not only is the vote recorded, but faculty members are asked to provide a rationale for the vote cast.

   How does the final tally influence your decision?
2. How significant is the recommendation of the ad hoc committee in helping you to decide?

   What are the principal considerations involved in selecting the members of an ad hoc committee?

   In general do they provide you with new information or insights?

   What value do they provide to the tenure process?
3. How do you evaluate the candidate's contributions in teaching undergraduate and graduate students? [Is it common practice for the dossier to include letters solicited from current and former graduate students, course evaluations from undergraduate courses, etc.?]

   Is the information about the candidate's abilities and contributions as a teacher sufficient for your purposes?

   What additional information, if any, should be included in order for you to render a judgment in these matters?

   How important are course evaluations? Could they be made more useful to all the parties involved in a tenure decision?

   How does the information contained in the graduate student "letters" compare with undergraduate course evaluations in terms of the influence they may have on your decision?
4. Why do dossiers contain considerably more information about the candidate's research performance than about teaching?

   How would you compare the level of effort the faculty give to evaluation of the candidate's teaching expertise and performance with that given to research?

5. If teaching could be evaluated as carefully and thoroughly as research, what difference do you think it would have upon the outcome of the tenure review process?
6. What influence do you have on the nature and quality of the information that is collected and presented to the faculty and yourself?
7. If more time and effort on the part of the faculty were required to evaluate the teaching performance of a tenure candidate, do you think such efforts would be endorsed by the faculty?
8. Are your college's guidelines (for carrying out a tenure review) strictly followed by the department in the materials submitted to you?
9. Should a dean be willing to recommend a faculty member for tenure based primarily upon an outstanding record of performance in teaching? Have you ever had the occasion to do so?
10. Does the university provide appropriate rewards for excellence in teaching? What kinds of rewards would best serve this purpose?

Using Focus Groups to Obtain Students' Perceptions of General Education

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This article describes a study that used focus group methodology to examine the perceptions students have of their experiences in the interdisciplinary portion of their general education requirements. In addition to identifying the content and the kind of teaching that they found most appealing in the general education curriculum, students also reported that general education courses affected their thinking, their behavior, and their attitudes toward working in small groups. The authors discuss the findings in terms of their implications for faculty, administrators, and instructional/faculty developers.

Among its recommendations, Boyer's *College: The Undergraduate Experience in America* (1987) called for re-focusing on general education in order to give students a more coherent, more meaningful education. In response to Boyer's work and to the concerns voiced by the public and various business leaders regarding the coherence of the undergraduate experience, many colleges and universities across the country have changed their general education requirements (Kanter, London, & Gamson, 1991) so that general education is playing a larger role in the undergraduate curriculum than it has in the past (Gaff, 1991).

Despite the enthusiasm for general education in undergraduate curriculum, recent research suggests that students are less affected by general education reform than they might be (Gaff, 1991). Furthermore, Baxter Magolda (1987) and Twombly (1990) note that not enough attention has been focused on the meaning students make of the curriculum or on the ways such curriculum can foster change. The research described in this article, then, was undertaken with the intent of addressing some of these concerns about the movement toward general education requirements. Specifically, the article describes a study that used focus group methodology to enhance understanding of students' perceptions of the interdisciplinary portion of their general education requirements.

Description of the Interdisciplinary Program

The interdisciplinary program is part of a general education curriculum designed to provide shared learning experiences for students at a comprehensive university in New England. Implemented in 1987, the All-University Curriculum (AUC) is committed to educating students broadly by challenging them to go beyond their choeen specializations. The faculty who developed the AUC selected classical and traditional knowledge in the humanities that has value for today; they also identified knowledge in science, the social sciences, business, engineering, and technology necessary to prepare graduates for the contemporary world. All of these areas are integrated in interdisciplinary courses in which students examine problems, ideas, and issues in depth through multiple perspectives (All-University Curriculum document, 1987). Teams of faculty from two or three disciplines develop the courses, which can be taught either by teams or individuals. The design of the courses in the AUC encourages active learning; and by using creative and interactive teaching styles, the faculty encourage students to take responsibility for their own learning.

All students in baccalaureate programs are required to take at least one course in four out of five breadth categories. The breadth categories include: Living in a Cultural Context-Western Heritage; Living in a Cultural Context-Other Cultures; Living Responsively to the Arts; Living in a Social Context; and Living in a Scientific and Technological World (For a list of the courses, see the first section of Appendix A). Students are exempt from the category closest to their major. For example, music and art students do not take a course in the arts category; similarly, engineering students are exempt from the science and technology category.

In May, 1991, the first class to have completed requirements in the All-University Curriculum graduated from the University. Therefore, it seemed important to examine student perceptions of this interdisciplinary general education program. Although courses are independently evaluated by students at the end of each semester, there has never been an overall review of students' perceptions since the program's implementation in 1987. The goal of the study reported here was to assess students' reactions to the integrative general education requirements of the All-University Curriculum.

Method

Gaff (1991) has suggested that we need to develop a larger view of students and a more complete understanding of their experience in the curriculum. To obtain this view, we cannot easily quantify student attitudes or behaviors as learning outcomes for specific courses. Instead, we propose that student perceptions demand a perspective and a methodology that is itself process-oriented.

Therefore, for our study we chose a focus group methodology to examine these perceptions. We anticipated that this methodology would optimize the amount of information obtained regarding student perceptions of their interdisciplinary curriculum. The hallmark of focus groups is the explicit use of the group interaction to produce data and insights that would be less accessible without the interaction found within a group (Morgan, 1988). This method produces a fairly high level of participant involvement, leading to relatively spontaneous responses from students. Because participants interact with one another and not only with the interviewer, the interaction has the potential for providing greater accessibility to participants' points of view.

Procedure

During the latter part of the 1991 spring semester, we sent letters inviting students to participate in the focus groups to a stratified sample of fifty-five graduating senior-level students from each of seven colleges within the University. As a result, a total of forty-eight students took part in eight focus groups. The size of the groups ranged from four to eight. Although we had originally planned to arrange the groups by college of enrollment, this arrangement was impossible because of class schedules and club and athletic activities. Thus, the groups were slightly more heterogeneous than originally intended.

At the start of each session, participants were asked to complete a twelve-item survey intended to focus them on the topic of the interdisciplinary general education program (see Appendix A). The survey requested basic demographic information, course and curricular information, as well as information about student opinions and attitudes regarding the program. To assist them in recalling the courses they had taken during their four years at the University, the survey also required students to indicate which of the AUC Interdisciplinary courses they had taken from a list of the offerings and then to respond to questions about these courses. The short survey, which took no longer than ten minutes to complete, provided us with an overview of students' perceptions of courses and the program; the focus groups allowed us to explore those perceptions in depth.

We chose focus group interviews to explore in depth the students' perceptions/ attitudes and behavior. The topics for the focus groups had been carefully predetermined and sequenced from general to specific questions (see Appendix B). For example, the first question of the focus session requested participants to "look back on the list of the AUC courses you have taken . . ." Among the questions, students were asked whether any All-University Curriculum courses had made a difference in the way they thought or challenged them to think in new ways. They were also asked whether any AUC course made them change their behavior in any way. Follow-up questions included probes for specific elements or examples students could discuss from the courses they had taken.

Each focus group session lasted approximately one-and-one-half hours and was moderated by one of the two project directors. Two recorders attended each focus group session and took notes. The University's Center for Social Research assisted in the transcription and analysis of data.

Data Analysis

Although analysis for the questionnaire data was primarily a matter of counting the frequency of responses in various categories, the volume and complexity of the data from focus groups required additional methods of qualitative analysis. The process involved identifying trends and patterns within each focus group and then across the various focus groups (Krueger, 1988). Our task was to identify those opinions, ideas or feelings that were repeated even though they were expressed in different styles and words. Opinions that were expressed only once, and were not supported by others, were enlightening, but did not form the crux of the report (Krueger, 1988). The results from the focus groups supplemented responses from the survey questionnaire and reinforced the need for methodological triangulation in the quest to understand students' perceptions of the general education requirements.

Results

Findings from the short questionnaire revealed that over thirty percent of our sample had taken an extra AUC course as an elective. We had suspected that students occasionally chose AUC courses as electives, but we did not anticipate that such a large number were doing so. We also learned that twenty-five percent of the students who had not taken "Epidemics and AIDS" wished they had, but simply could not fit an additional course into their schedules or programs of study. In addition, the survey data indicated that the majority of graduating students had gone to art museums, musical performances, or scientific and technological sites as part of their AUC requirements and that a significant number had volunteered at soup kitchens, AIDS hospices, or food share programs as optional requirements.

A strong relationship emerged among "course with greatest impact," "books that made a lasting impression," and "faculty member students would recommend to a peer." For example, when asked which course they would recommend to a peer, twenty-five percent of the students chose "A Western Heritage: The Humanities"; two of the five faculty members students would recommend to a peer teach in the "Western Heritage" course; and books from the "A Western Heritage: The Humanities" course dominated the list of "books that made a lasting impression," with *Zen and the Art of Motorcycle Maintenance* by Robert Pirsig and *The Painted Bird* by Jerzy Kosinki mentioned by almost every student in the groups who had taken the course.

The survey data that we collected at the start of the focus groups gave us quantitative data about student majors, which courses students took, which courses they felt had an impact on their thinking or behavior, but provided little information about why or how students made meaning of their courses. Thus, the focus groups were valuable in providing us with additional data on the impact of curricular offerings in the program.

Reactions to Content

Initial questions about the value of the interdisciplinary courses and the impressions that courses made (see Appendix B) produced information about the students' reactions to the content of courses in the arts and the sciences and provided valuable insights into the way students perceived the relationship between a course and its instructor.

The arts. Of the five categories of courses only one category engendered more discussion of content than it did of particular faculty. Focus group discussions about Living Responsively to the Arts remained focused on the category and the courses and not on individual faculty members. Consistent with the findings on the short-answer questionnaire, students, in general, indicated that when they took the courses in the arts category, they did not think the courses were meaningful or worthwhile. Although there were several students who took additional art history courses after taking a course in the arts category, they were the exception. Because most students knew little about the arts and felt there was no need to know ("What good does it do me to take this kind of course?"), they apparently came to the courses with the perception that studying the arts would be neither meaningful nor interesting. In discussions on this topic, almost all the students agreed that they had not wanted to take a course in this category. They indicated that they had assumed not only that courses in the arts would be boring, but also that the courses would be very difficult. Although all the courses in the arts category are team-taught, students did not differentiate one faculty member from another in the sessions.

Focus groups revealed, however, that some students recognized or appreciated the value of courses in the arts category several semesters after they they had taken those courses. Often in their discussions, students would comment that now they could look at art differently; they could analyze art and even notice more architectural details:

- "I simply had never listened to classical music before and had no idea how to analyze art."
- "I didn't like it at the time, but now that I know how to look at it I think it's pretty interesting."
- "You know now I'm even aware in advertising or commercials of the use of opera or when classical or romantic images are being used to make a point."

The sciences. It is clear that some interdisciplinary courses in the sciences appealed to many students. For the most part, students found the team-taught lab courses, "Epidemics and AIDS" and "Living in the Environment," to be both rigorous and exciting. Students would have discussed these two courses for the entire session if the groups had not been structured. Obviously, the issues were current and meaningful for students, but the depth of interest these non-science majors revealed was illuminating. Biology lectures and labs were at the heart of both these courses; but because they were in a contextual framework, students overcame their science apprehension and became deeply involved in both courses. Focus groups revealed that students personalized the learning in these two courses:

- "It's strange, but I really liked the field trips in 'Living in the Environment' and the follow-up labs."
- "Me too. It's so weird, but now I look at garbage in different ways. I'm

so much more aware now than I was before taking it. My roommates and I try to recycle, and even when we don't always do it, we're much more careful than we were before."

- "I like the fact that you can talk about the environment in so many ways and that there are so many questions. The labs were interesting because you care about the topic."
- "I liked listening to the economics professor and the politics professor debate certain issues; I never knew it was so complex."

Comments on "Epidemics and AIDS" included:

- "The stigma regarding AIDS was totally broken down by the labs."
- "I actually learned how the body works in this course."
- "I think students have changed their behavior after taking this class."
- "Well, people sure talk about AIDS differently now."

Instructor-Content Interaction

Perhaps an important conclusion that can be drawn from these interviews is that the professors' enthusiasm for content had a strong impact on students' perceptions or attitudes about specific courses and about the curriculum in general. The content-instructor interaction was particularly evident when students spoke favorably about specific courses. Consistent with the research, students equated a professor's enthusiasm for teaching or obvious love of the material with a "good, meaningful" course (McKeachie, 1986; Sherman, Armistead, Fowler, Barksdale, & Reif, 1987; Lowman, 1984). We knew from the survey that four courses emerged consistently in response to the statements, "I would recommend this course to a peer," and "This course had a significant impact on me." As we followed up on the initial responses in the questionnaires, few students in the groups talked about content of a specific course without referring to the faculty member:

- "I liked Western Heritage because I liked the way it was taught. We got to look at ideas from many different angles."
- "Dr. X had such a unique perspective on everything. It was so cool."
- "Some of the ideas were so new to me. She really made me think."
- "It was so great to watch Prof. A get into his materials. It's like he'd be so totally into it that I'd look up and the class would be over."
- "I liked Hunger. Dr. Y went way beyond the textbook and into his own experiences." "It was so intense the way Prof. D talked about values and changing things."
- "He really made me think in a different way about the homeless people I see."

- "I can't believe how the statistics came to life in that course. It changed me."

Conversely, student comments or observations that a professor was disinterested or "not into" the subject matter were often equated with a class that lacked meaning, coherence, or ways to generate interest.

Impact of Courses

In addition to the information we obtained about the content of the courses in the AUC, we also obtained insights about the ways the courses affected the students. Prompted by the questions about the impact of the various courses, students in the focus groups identified ways in which the courses influenced their thinking, their behavior, and their desire to work in small groups.

Impact on thinking. Students felt that certain courses "opened their minds" to thinking about the values and ideas of western culture as well as other cultures. Focus group sessions revealed that new perspectives, new points of view were important to students and that, in some sense, such broadening of their ideas is what they had hoped for in college. In addition, students talked quite excitedly about learning the value of questioning and examining ideas and thoughts as part of the learning process. Students were accustomed to ambiguity and uncertainty in the humanities, but were surprised to learn that questioning assumptions is critical to learning in the professional schools and the sciences. Several discussions indicated that students came to these courses with the fixed notion that business and engineering were hard, "cold" and factual and were genuinely surprised to discover otherwise. The interdisciplinary nature of the courses provided the catalyst for these insights. Never before, for example, had students understood that fields of sociology, government and philosophy could be related to business problems:

- "Studying Transnational Corporations made me realize how important it is to know people's cultures and backgrounds."
- "I never realized that intuition played any role in engineering or design. I guess I just assumed that discovery came from facts."
- "What I liked was not that we received new information but that we [are] learning new ways of thinking and understanding."
- "'Sources of Power' made me realize how no one discipline has the answer to any of society's problems. You need sociologists as well as economists and government."

Impact on behavior. The focus group discussions indicated that students thought that, as a result of taking some of the courses, their behavior and the behavior of other students had changed in several ways. The most significant change occurred in sexual behavior. Students claimed that sexual behavior changed as a result of taking "Epidemics and AIDS." Several said they were much more cautious about practicing "safe sex" and that their friends had also changed their behavior.

Students also indicated that they tried to recycle, eliminate waste and change their living habits as a result of taking "Living in the Environment." However, several reported that their changes were short-lived or not as consistent as they should have been because it is "so difficult to change living in college housing." However, they felt that even little changes were worth noting.

Students suggested that participating in projects and volunteer work fostered a change in their behavior. They felt that once their attitudes were changed by these experiences, their behaviors changed also. Several commented that they treated the homeless differently now, showing more compassion toward them.

Impact on perceptions of working in groups. Students in this study were divided on the value of group work, with many students expressing strong negative attitudes towards this practice both in the interdisciplinary classes and in their other courses. They found it particularly difficult to work in groups if they were highly motivated when other students were not. They also talked about knowing what they could do alone, and not liking the uncertainty associated with group projects. Several students commented that they knew "group work was supposed to be good for you to prepare you for the working world," but they did not find that to be a compelling reason to work in groups on academic projects:

- "Group work really isn't good because you have to depend on people who aren't always dependable."
- "I agree. I've never been in one that wasn't a disaster. It seems I always get stuck doing the work for someone who isn't taking it seriously."
- "Some people just aren't mature enough to work in groups. They see groups as an opportunity to blow off the course."
- "The concept is good, and once in a while it works, but often it's a disaster. It always sounds like a good idea until it's time to get the actual work done. Conflicting schedules always get in the way."

The comments that were not negative about group work were primarily related to the lab component of courses in the science category. Some students, for instance, indicated that their attitudes were reflective of their experiences in the sciences: "Well, I'm a biology major, and I think people in the sciences just get accustomed to working with another person." Because of the "hands on" nature of science labs, other students felt that partner or group work was beneficial.

Implications

Overall, although the results from the questionnaires and the focus groups do not present the faculty and administrators of the All-University Curriculum with conclusive evidence, they do provide some important insights concerning students' perceptions of the program. Furthermore, the results are relevant not only for faculty and administrators in an all-university curriculum but also for any faculty or instructional/faculty developers who are interested in the quality of the undergraduate experience. Specifically, this study contains implications for teaching, for future research, and for the use of focus groups as a research methodology.

Teaching

Our study suggests that interdisciplinary courses can be successfully implemented so that students will enroll in the courses and will perceive that they have learned from them. In addition the results provide insights about teaching, particularly for those interested in developing students' critical thinking, getting students more engaged in the content of a course, or using small groups in instruction.

It is clear from the data that, for many students, perceptions, attitudes, and ways of thinking can be influenced by their experiences in the all-university curriculum. Students reported numerous instances in which their attitudes or perceptions toward topics or groups of people were altered as a result of their experiences in a course. It is especially interesting to note that students perceived that through such courses they could become more open-minded and begin to recognize the connectedness of the disciplines and the complexity of issues surrounding topics from various disciplines. The fact that students liked being encouraged to expand their perspectives and broaden their interest has important curricular and pedagogical implications for anyone who wants to enhance critical thinking skills and students' ability to see interrelationships among their college experiences. Given that most institutions of higher education are presently attempting to address the need for greater emphasis on multicultural and global education, the interdisciplinary classroom may be the ideal place to stimulate students' abilities to appreciate diverse ways of thinking and being, to make the necessary connections, and, generally, to think rather than sit passively and take in information.

There was some indication that behavioral changes followed attitudinal changes. The survey data revealed that the interdisciplinary general education courses encouraged off-campus learning and willingness to volunteer for a variety of activities related to the courses. Students in the focus groups suggested that they enjoyed going to off-campus exhibits, performances, and scientific sites. This information strongly supports the notion that the interdisciplinary general education program is providing an array of activities to support and involve students in their own learning. More important, though, many students indicated that they had changed their behaviors as a result of these activities. These instances reinforce the potential impact of off-campus assignments on learning and the importance of finding ways to increase student involvement in a subject as a way to motivate learning.

The study also revealed valuable information about how we might make humanities and social sciences and, particularly, the sciences more accessible to non-majors. Interdisciplinary proponents argue that learning in the sciences would be enhanced if the curriculum were built on natural areas of student interest, with scientific principles and procedures introduced in context (Steen, 1991). The success of the "Epidemics and AIDS" and the "Living in the Environment" courses seem to reflect that stance. Although all the interdisciplinary courses in the scientific and technological category of the AUC have rigorous lab components, students liked the labs because they were interested in the course content. Again, the findings have implications for enhancing student motivation and interest by finding ways to make course content relevant to students.

In addition, the study has reinforced the importance of instructor enthusiasm in the teaching of a course. For example, for almost all of the students in our focus groups, the content of a well-taught course was inextricably entwined with the professor. Even though the moderators consistently directed the students away from specific discussion of faculty members to a discussion of perceptions of the courses in the interdisciplinary program, student satisfaction with a course was consistently equated with faculty enthusiasm and interest in the subject. This finding is not inconsistent with studies that show instructor enthusiasm as an historically strong predictor of teaching excellence (Feldman, 1976; Sherman et al., 1987). Lowman's study (1984) indicates that teaching effectiveness (i.e., student learning) results from a professor's skill in creating intellectual excitement and rapport. These findings do suggest the need to keep and reward the most highly motivated and enthusiastic faculty in required general education programs if we are to take general education seriously. In addition, faculty and instructional/faculty developers need to be aware of the importance of instructor enthusiasm for course content and think about how to help instructors design and translate content in ways that reflect their enthusiasm both for the material and for student learning.

Another important finding of this study is the dissatisfaction expressed by some students with the use of small groups in instruction. The literature suggests that collaborative learning energizes students and allows them to analyze and create new perspectives (Bruffee, 1984). Cooperative learning has been shown to develop higher-level thinking skills, promote positive interdependence, and increase student retention (Cooper, et al., 1990). However, the students' reactions towards group work in classes indicate the need for further reflection in this area. In our case, one of the obstacles to promoting successful group work appears to be directly related to the number of students taking the courses on a pass/no pass basis. Some of the dissatisfaction also seems to be the result of students' perceptions of 'fairness' of group grading. Bouton and Garth (1983) suggest, however, that because students are unaccustomed to working in groups, such instructional methods are often ineffective. Unless the use of groups is carefully planned and unless students are carefully prepared for their roles, many students get discouraged before they have sufficient opportunity to recognize the value of learning in groups. This issue might suggest that before encouraging faculty to use small groups and collaborative projects in class, faculty or instructional/faculty developers with specific expertise in these areas can assist by providing consultations or workshops on the effective use of small groups in instruction.

The issue that students sometimes do not appreciate the value of course content until some time after the course also requires additional consideration. This insight provides a reminder that looking for changes in attitudes, behaviors or values —especially abstract ideas or aesthetic values—immediately following a class or even immediately preceding graduation might give us only partial truths. The finding has implications not only for the way faculty or designers work with student expectations during a course but also for the way the effects of courses are evaluated. It may be necessary to think more fully about assessment measures that will allow us to obtain longitudinal insights when we are evaluating courses.

Further Research

In addition to providing insights about teaching, the study was useful for identifying areas that could be advanced by further research. For example, the survey data indicated that many students went beyond the required number of interdisciplinary courses to fulfill elective requirements. Because we had not anticipated that such a large number of students in the sample would have taken an extra course, we did not ask their reasons for doing so. Although the present study has identified some of the reasons why certain courses were popular, we need additional follow-up to understand even more fully the curricular and pedagogical reasons for the choices and decisions students make about their general education requirements.

The strong relationship that emerged among course, professor, and book that students would recommend to a peer is also an important finding that raises issues for further investigation. We need to explore the relationships to better understand how one affects the other. For instance, because the interdisciplinary course in Western Heritage uses all primary sources while many introductory, traditional western civilization courses do not, program and course developers might want to further examine the impact of the use of primary sources rather than textbooks on students' perceptions of course effectiveness.

Also, although the present study was useful for providing some initial data on all-university curriculum, future research might seek insights from additional sources. Based on our findings, for example, we recommend the collection of additional quantitative and qualitative data from a larger, randomly selected sample of students. In addition, conducting focus groups with faculty to assess their perceptions of the meaning or purpose of general education and its effects would provide valuable information regarding the relationship between faculty and student perceptions. Because the students had so much to say about the content of various courses, it would be particularly useful to have the perceptions of the content experts to balance against the perceptions of the students.

Use of Focus Groups

Finally, it is important to reinforce the value of focus groups as a method for tapping students' perceptions. Weimer (1991) makes a distinction between the sort of descriptive feedback needed to improve college teaching and the common policies and practices used by practitioners in higher education attempting to evaluate teaching. She suggests that despite a large body of literature and many highly reliable survey instruments, the data often do not yield information helpful to those interested in program improvements or changes. We found that focus groups were one way to respond to her concerns. They provided rich data that we could not have gotten from traditional survey instruments. For example, the interaction among students that led to the discussion of "after the class was over" effect is not something we did or could have gotten from a traditional pen and paper questionnaire. In addition, our ability to begin to see the interactions between the content and the professor was only obtained after we were able to hear the students talking and probe their responses. Besides providing information about student attitudes toward the program, then, the focus groups gave us the opportunity to obtain rich data to help explain why and how these courses had an impact on students.

Conclusion

This paper reflects some of our initial efforts in response to Gaff's (1991) call for further understanding of students' experiences in courses required as part of a university's general education requirements. What began as an attempt to identify how students perceive integrative general education requirements at the university expanded into participant-focused study of the program with implications not only for the All-University Curriculum but also for teaching, research, and the use of focus groups as a methodology for understanding how students experience their undergraduate education.

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Appendix A

Name______________________________ Soc. Sec. #.______________
School______________________________ Major ____________________

1. Please circle the AUC courses you have taken or are currently taking:

Living in a Cultural Context: Western Heritage
AUCW 180 A Western Heritage - The Humanities
AUCW 210 Discovering America 1
AUCW 211 Discovering America 11
AUCW 212 Discovering America 111

Living in a Cultural Context: Other Cultures
AUCC 110 Hunger - Problems of Scarcity and Choice
AUCC 120 Literature and Films of Other Cultures
AUCC 140 Native American Cultures
AUCC 210 Cultures and Transnational Corporations

Living in a Social Context
AUCS 110 Sources of Power
AUCS 120 The Adult Journey
AUCS 130 Dynamics of Business
AUCS 210 Discovering the News
AUCS 340 Ethics and the Professions

Living Responsively to the Arts
AUCA 110 Romanticism in the Arts
AUCA 120 Classical Greece
AUCA 130 The Italian Renaissance
AUCA 140 Creativity: Dynamics of Artistic Expression
AUCA 150 Urban Roots and Ethnic Arts

Living in a Scientific and Technological World
AUCT 110 Reasoning in Science
AUCT 120 Living in the Environment
AUCT 140 Epidemics and AIDS
AUCT 150 Technology as a Human Affair
AUCT 160 Seeing through Symmetry

2. Are there any AUC courses you would have liked to take but could not fit into your schedule?

1. Yes Which course? ______________ 2. No

3. Are there any AUC courses you would have liked to take but would not have received credit within your major?
1. Yes Why? ____________________ 2. No

4. Which AUC courses had the greatest impact on you? ____________________
____________________ Why? ____________________

5. Which AUC courses would you recommend to a friend?
____________________ ____________________

6. Which AUC courses would you not recommend to a friend?
____________________ ____________________
Why? ____________________

7. Which AUC professors would you recommend to a friend?
____________________ ____________________
Why? ____________________

8. Which book, play or reading from an AUC course would you recommend to a friend or peer? ______

9. Which book, play, or reading from an AUC course made a lasting impression on you? ______

10. Have you attended one of the following for an AUC course? Circle answers.
1. Art museum off campus 3. Art exhibit on campus 5. Scientific/technological exhibit
2. Concert at music school 4. Theatrical performance

11. Have you participated in an event off campus or volunteered as part of an AUC course?
1. Yes Activity ____________________ 2. No

12. Have you ever taken an AUC course pass/no pass?
1. No 2. Yes. If so, how many? 1 2 3 4 Why? ____________________

Appendix B

1. Looking back on the list of AUC courses you have taken during the last four years, can you give me your overall impressions of the AUC Program?
   Why do you feel that way ?
2. Do you see any value in taking interdisciplinary courses outside of your major?
   What is your perception of interdisciplinary learning?
3. Does interdisciplinary learning take place more easily in team-taught courses or individually taught courses?
   Which do you prefer?
   Can you tell me about the advantages of each?
4. Was there any one AUC course that made an especially strong impression on you?
   How did it make an impression?
5. Did any course change the way you thought about something?
   How did this happen?
6. Did any course change anything you do, or any action or behavior?
   How did this happen?
7. Was there any one AUC course that had absolutely no impact on you?
   What do you think was lacking in the course?
8. Was there a book or reading associated with an AUC course that made a lasting impression on you?
   What was it? How did it affect you?

Section II

Strategies for Enhancing Teaching and Learning

The teaching success of faculty is partly dependent on their having a broad repertoire of instructional strategies to use in various situations. The three articles in this section of the volume focus on some of those strategies as possible ways of enhancing teaching and learning. In the first article Larry Michaelen discusses the specifics of using team learning—a comprehensive group-based approach for achieving course goals. In the second article Andrew Knoedler and Mary Ann Shea combine issues of facilitating class discussion with issues of student diversity to provide a variety of specific strategies for instructors to use in "Conducting Effective Discussions in the Diverse Classroom." "Not Another Inventory, Rather a Catalyst for Reflection" by Neil Fleming and Colleen Mills suggests the use of a modal preferences questionnaire as a method to assist students in reflecting on their sensory preferences and modifying their own study behavior.

Team Learning: A Comprehensive Approach for Harnessing the Power of Small Groups in Higher Education

Larry K. Michaelsen

The University of Oklahoma

This paper describes Team Learning, a comprehensive, group-based instructional format that was originally developed to facilitate active learning in large classes, but has subsequently proven to be effective in a wide variety of instructional settings. The primary features of the approach include: 1) permanent and purposefully heterogeneous work groups; 2) grading based on a combination of individual performance, group performance, and peer evaluation; 3) a majority of the class time devoted to small group activities; and 4) a six-step instructional activity sequence that makes it possible to focus the majority of class time on helping students develop the ability to use concepts as opposed to simply learn about them. The author also compares Team Learning to other instructional approaches and discusses the use of group activities as a supplement to lectures.

The past decade has produced a growing body of evidence that small group-based instructional methods can be used to promote the achievement of a wide variety of desirable educational outcomes in higher education. These include the development of higher level learning and problem solving skills (Kurfiss, 1988), enhancing the effectiveness of computer-based instruction (Light, 1990; Wojtkowski & Wojtkowski, 1987), eliminating the basis for stereotypes based on race, gender, and physical handicaps (see the review by Johnson, Johnson, & Maruyama, 1983) and reducing drop-out rates for accounting students (Wilson, 1982) and science majors (Tobias, 1990).

In spite of this evidence, however, the use of small group-based instructional methods is still much more of a novelty than a common practice in college courses for two main reasons.[1] First, most university faculty members' approaches to teaching appear to be guided by the assumption that the only way to ensure that students are exposed to course concepts is by personally going over the material in class. Thus, they genuinely feel that using class time for group work sacrifices basics for frills because doing so automatically results in a reduction of the amount of material they can "cover." Second, very few college educators have received formal training for their teaching roles, and fewer still have been trained in the use of groups. Further, having experienced group work from a student's perspective is probably of little help other than alerting them to the fact that using groups is no guarantee that students will learn more or that they will be more satisfied with their experience in the class.

As a result of these factors, most faculty members, if they use groups at all, employ strategies that are typically so narrow in scope that the results are self-limiting and may even be self-defeating. For example, the two most common uses of groups are forming temporary groups in which students are asked to talk about a specific issue as a precursor to a class discussion and assigning a single group project (with little or no class time devoted to group work). Although these approaches are likely to have positive, but modest, effects on learning (see Fiechtner & Davis, 1985), both are subject to serious limitations. The main problem with temporary groups is that the limited degree of commitment to and the quality of the work produced by newly-formed groups are likely to be very limited (Watson, Michaelsen, & Sharp, 1991). Further, members of groups that work mostly outside of class on a single project are likely to encounter serious problems from scheduling difficulties and an inability to divide the work load equitably (see Fiechtner & Davis, 1985). Fortunately, the majority of the liabilities of using group discussions or a group project as a supplement to lecture-oriented classes can be turned into assets by using group activities as the primary instructional medium. Doing so, however, requires a comprehensive strategy in which the majority of class time is spent working in groups. Further, it is imperative that the composition of the groups, grading policies and procedures, and nature of class activities are all mutually supportive and that the instructor's primary role shifts from dispenser of information to manager of a learning process.

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[1] These conclusions are based on feedback from over 500 faculty members on several dozen campuses where I have conducted workshops on teaching with small groups.

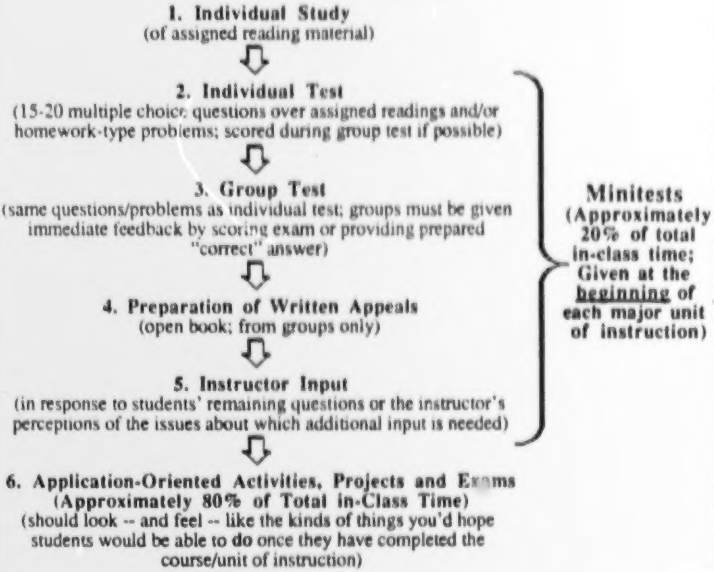
Team Learning Defined

The purpose of this paper is to describe a comprehensive group based approach, Team Learning (see Michaelsen, Watson, Cragin & Fink, 1982; Michaelsen, Watson, & Schraeder, 1985), that was originally developed to facilitate active learning in large classes, but has subsequently proven to be effective in a wide range of instructional settings. These include class sizes ranging from 10 to 280 students, with courses in over 30 academic disciplines, and with students ranging from freshmen on academic probation, through doctoral-level students and even participants in corporate-sponsored professional and management development courses. The primary features of Team Learning (TL) include: 1) permanent and purposefully heterogeneous work groups; 2) grading based on a combination of individual performance, group performance, and peer evaluation; 3) the majority of the class time devoted to small group activities (necessitating a shift in the role of the instructor from dispenser of information to manager of a learning process); and 4) a six-step instructional activity sequence, repeated several times per term (see Figure 1) that makes it possible to focus the vast majority of class time on helping students develop the ability to use concepts as opposed to simply learn about them (i.e., develop higher level cognitive skills, Bloom, 1956).

The instructional sequence used in TL has a great deal in common with two other widely used and highly successful instructional approaches: mastery learning and cooperative learning. Steps one, two, and five (see Figure 1) serve the same function in TL as formative testing in the mastery learning process (see Bloom, 1971). They furnish data so misunderstandings can be detected before students experience the frustration of trying to assimilate new concepts for which they are unprepared or trying to apply concepts that they do not understand (Bloom, Madaus, & Hastings, 1981, p. 156). Steps three and four, which involve group interaction, add a number of dimensions characteristic of cooperative learning (see Johnson & Johnson, 1983; Slavin & Karweit, 1981). For example, the discussions during the group exams routinely require students to reveal both how they answered each question and the rationale upon which they based their answer. This process aids learning in two ways. First, students have access to individualized corrective instruction from their peers on an ongoing basis. Second, the process of articulating the rationale for a particular answer in itself promotes learning (e.g., see Slavin & Karweit, 1981.)

In addition, steps four and five provide corrective instruction if the dominant view within the groups is in error. During preparation of the appeals, students are highly motivated to reexamine the relevant sections of their assigned readings, and they have the other members of their group as resources. In fact, with an entire group of students scanning the material, only rarely are they unable to locate the needed references quickly. Thus, by the time the instructor's input is called for in step five, most of the basic questions have been answered, and the students have aided each other in completing a review of the troublesome concepts.

Figure 1
Team Learning Instructional Activity Sequence
(Repeated for each major unit of instruction -- typically 5-7 times in any given course.)



1. Individual Study
(of assigned reading material)

2. Individual Test
(15-20 multiple choice questions over assigned readings and/or homework-type problems; scored during group test if possible)

3. Group Test
(same questions/problems as individual test; groups must be given immediate feedback by scoring exam or providing prepared "correct" answer)

4. Preparation of Written Appeals
(open book; from groups only)

5. Instructor Input
(in response to students' remaining questions or the instructor's perceptions of the issues about which additional input is needed)

6. Application-Oriented Activities, Projects and Exams (Approximately 80% of Total In-Class Time)
(should look -- and feel -- like the kinds of things you'd hope students would be able to do once they have completed the course/unit of instruction)

Minitests (Approximately 20% of total in-class time; Given at the beginning of each major unit of instruction)

Guidelines for Using Team Learning

Answering Key Design Questions

Many of the strategic decisions required in designing a course for TL can be made by answering three questions. These include:

1. *What do I want students to be able to do when they have completed this unit of instruction (or course, program of study, etc.)?* This question identifies the desired outcome(s) of the instructional process and the nature of the activities that can be used to develop and assess students' higher level cognitive skills (Bloom, 1956). Some examples might include being able to read lab reports of blood and urine analyses and describe the chemical processes that might have produced the observed outcomes (for an organic chemistry course in a first year medical school curriculum), or being able to isolate and rationally weigh the relevant factors when confronted with a "buy/lease/rent" decision (for a course in financial management).

2. *What will students have to know to be able to do #1?* This question defines the content that must be covered in assigned readings or in other ways.

3. *How can I tell what students have already learned on their own or from each other so I can build from there (rather than assume that they do not know anything and start from scratch)?* This question guides the development of minitests and application-oriented projects and exams (see Figure 1).

Once the course objectives and content are set, it is then possible to design the day-to-day operational aspects of a course so that they will also be mutually supportive. These include determining the composition of the groups, establishing the nature of the grading system, developing the activities and exams, and determining the procedures used to manage the class and promote the development of performance-oriented group norms.

Forming Team Learning Groups

There are two key principles to remember in forming Team Learning groups. One is that member assets (e.g., full-time work experience, previous relevant course work, access to perspectives from other cultures, etc.) and also member liabilities (e.g., negative attitudes towards the course, limited fluency in English, etc.) should be evenly spread across the groups. The other is that the groups should not be formed in a way that results in unnecessary barriers to group cohesiveness. For example, one of the greatest barriers to group cohesiveness can be a previously established relationship between a subset of the members in a group (e.g., boyfriend/girlfriend, fraternity brothers, sorority sisters, etc.). Such relationships can form the basis for a cohesive subgroup from which other members are likely to feel excluded for the entirety of a course. As a result, allowing students to form their own groups practically ensures the existence of potentially disruptive subgroups and creates potential trouble for a variety of other reasons (see Fiechtner & Davis, 1985).

The process for making group assignments should be as visible as possible to the students. This procedure alleviates student concerns about any ulterior motives the instructor may have for assigning students to groups. An effective and practical approach to forming the groups is to gather data orally about students' backgrounds on the dimensions important to group success. The groups can then be formed by: 1) deciding on the total number of groups desired (I usually have 5 to 7 people per group); 2) asking students possessing a specific asset to stand (taking the rarest important category first); 3) having those standing "count-off" by the total number of groups; and 4) repeating steps #2 and #3 with different categories of students until everyone in the class has been assigned to a group.

Establishing a Grading System

Team Learning requires a grading system that ensures both individual accountability and incentives for group work. As a result, I recommend a grading system in which a part of the grade is based on each of three components: individual performance (i.e., individual scores on minitests and other exams), group performance (i.e., group scores on minitests and other graded projects and exams), and a peer evaluation. The individual performance component ensures individual accountability for completing the reading assignments or other homework. The group performance component provides incentives to support the development of group cohesiveness and to justify putting effort into group work. The peer evaluation provides an incentive for participating in group discussions and also tends to remove students' fear of having to choose between either getting a low grade on the group assignments or having to do most of the group work (if other group members might not do their fair share).

The final decision on the weight of each of these components should be a function of three factors. One is that each of the components should be given enough weight so it is clear to students that the instructor thinks it is important. Second, the instructor must be personally comfortable with administering the chosen grading system. Finally, the grading system must be responsive to student concerns for fairness and equity.

In my classes, I involve students in the development of the grading system through an exercise called "Setting Grade Weights" (see Michaelsen, Cragin, & Watson, 1981). This exercise, in which I set limits and representatives of the groups then negotiate to reach a mutually acceptable set of weights for each of the grade components, is a highly effective way to accomplish a number of important objectives, including: 1) clearly demonstrating that the roles of both the instructor and students in the class will be different from most other courses; 2) building group cohesiveness; and 3) ensuring that both group performance and peer evaluation are an integral part of the grading process.

Using Minitests to "Cover" Content Without Lectures

The heart of the Team Learning model is the six-step instructional activity sequence that is repeated several times per term (see Figure 1). Probably the most unique feature of this sequence is that there are no formal presentations by the instructor until students have studied the material and taken a "minitest" — steps 2-5 in the sequence (for further information see Michaelsen, Fink, & Watson, in press; Michaelsen, Watson, & Schraeder, 1985).

The minitests are a significant part of the learning process for four major reasons. First, they create opportunities and incentives for students to accept responsibility for their own learning instead of creating a dependency on the instructor. Students who complete their assigned homework are rewarded by higher scores on the individual tests and by contributions to the success of their group. Second, if need be, students are exposed to and receive feedback on their understanding of the key concepts at least six different times in very different ways (see Figure 1). In most instances, the students are initially exposed to concepts through assigned readings. The additional exposure during the individual test helps reinforce their memory of what they learned during their individual study (for a discussion of the positive effects of testing on retention, see Nungester & Duchastel, 1982). During the group tests, students receive oral input from their peers that often broadens their understanding, and they also benefit from acting in a teaching role (for a discussion of the cognitive benefits of teaching, see Bargh & Schul, 1980; Slavin & Karweit, 1981). During the appeals, students engage in a focused restudy of particularly troublesome concepts. This process is followed by oral input from the instructor that is specifically designed to resolve any remaining misunderstandings unearthed by the three previous steps in the process. Subsequently, students are exposed to the concepts again as they try to use them while working on application-oriented activities and exams. A third reason why minitests are important is that they are extremely effective in building group cohesiveness that, in turn, enables instructors to rely on group norms to provide motivation for individual study and class attendance. Comparisons of individual and group scores provide feedback that helps the groups become more effective (see Watson et al., 1991). Groups learn very quickly the importance of ensuring that no one dominates. As a result, more vocal members talk less, listen more, and encourage quieter members to participate in the discussions. Fourth, the minitests are such an efficient way to expose students to conceptual material that approximately 80% of class time can be spent on application-oriented class activities such as solving problems or completing assignments either using specific concepts or thinking through how several concepts relate to each other.

Immediate feedback. In my judgement, when true/false and multiple choice questions are used in the minitests, the most effective way to handle test scoring is to use optically scanned answer sheets and score them on the spot with a portable mark-sense scoring machine.[2] This procedure minimizes scoring errors and simultaneously allows instructors to provide immediate feedback on both the individual and group exams. In instances where the minitests consist of problems or short answer essays, I recommend having students put their individual answers in a clear plastic folder during the group test (so that they can see them but will not be tempted to change them) and hand both the individual and group answers in at the same time. I then recommend giving a solution (or list of key points that should have been covered) that can be prepared and duplicated prior to class.

Appeals. The appeals process (see Figure 1) is a very effective way of increasing both learning and group cohesiveness. When it is properly managed, the process galvanizes students' negative emotional energy from having missed an exam question into a focused review of potentially troublesome concepts. After having used and/or observed a number of approaches for managing the appeals process, I recommend that:

- A written explanation of why appeals are allowed and instructions for preparing and submitting them should be attached to the inside of the group folder. For the first minitest, the first person to finish the individual exam in each group should read the instructions so that he/she can coach the group through the appeals process.
- Appeals should be written. (I recommend using an appeals form that asks students to specify the question involved, their preferred correct answer, the basis for their appeal, and the evidence that supports their

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[2] I use a machine from a firm called Scantron Corporation. The firm provides the equipment free of charge — as long as you purchase a minimum volume of forms on an annual basis — for more information call 1-(800) 421-5066, extension 650.

point of view.) Requiring groups to put their thoughts in writing forces students to formulate their reasoning in a systematic way and also gives the instructor the opportunity to evaluate their arguments in the privacy of his or her office and avoid a public debate about the merits of the appeal.

- Only group appeals should be accepted. Individual appeals are detrimental in two ways. First, individual appeals are a barrier to group cohesiveness because they remove an important source of interdependence among group members. Second, individual appeals reduce the learning that normally takes place as groups prepare appeals (i.e., if individuals can get credit on their own, without having to challenge others' ideas, there is no incentive for working to achieve agreement as a group.)
- When an appeal is granted, credit should be given to both the group and each individual in that group but not to members of other groups. This procedure increases learning by both encouraging appeals and enhancing group cohesiveness because it forces each group to act on its own behalf.

Instructor input. The instructor input should be very focused and brief. By this point in the minitest process (see Figure 1), most groups have successfully developed a sound understanding of the material covered in the tests. If not, however, the instructor has the opportunity to resolve any student misunderstandings that still exist. Thus, I typically remind students that the reason for the testing process is to prepare them for the application-oriented activities and projects that are to follow and ask them to identify any of the questions that they would like me to discuss before we move on to the next activity or the next unit of material. In addition, at this time I typically present any related material that may not have been adequately treated in the readings.

One caution is in order with respect to this phase of the minitest process. Students who have convinced their peers to accept an incorrect answer may try to save face by defending their point of view orally. This situation creates problems for two reasons. First, such students are often so emotionally involved that they do not listen very well. Second, the majority of the class usually does not care one way or the other and will feel that time is being wasted if the discussion lasts for any length of time.

When faced with students who appear to be defending an appeal orally, I try to minimize the situation by:

- reminding the class (and myself) that the purpose of the minitest process is to make certain that the students understand the concepts before they are asked to apply them and then focus the discussion on the concepts rather than the questions.

- making it clear that I cannot and will not make a judgement on the students' appeal at this point because I would not be able to do a thorough job of evaluating the appeal until I have the opportunity to consider both the evidence they provide and the context from which it was taken. As a result, the argumentative student will have to wait until I have the chance to look over the reading material before I can make thoughtful decisions on the appeal.

Developing Group Assignments and Activities

A key element in the success or failure of any group-based instructional approach, including Team Learning, is the nature of the group assignments. To be effective, group assignments, whether graded or not, should be designed and managed to accomplish three important objectives simultaneously: promoting learning of essential concepts or skills, building group cohesiveness, and ensuring individual accountability. Activities that sacrifice one (or even possibly two) of these objectives can still be used, however. The key is maintaining an overall balance. For example, activities that primarily promote learning are perfectly appropriate if they are interspersed with activities that build group cohesiveness and individual accountability. Otherwise, the groups will deteriorate to the point of ineffectiveness.

Activities for developing students' higher level cognitive skills. One of the greatest challenges of using Team Learning is designing activities and assignments that are appropriate for developing students' higher level cognitive skills (e.g., Bloom, 1956). Because of the efficiency of the minitests in helping students master basic concepts, new users of TL who have traditionally focused the majority of their teaching on simply "covering" content have a great deal of class time available for helping students learn to use the concepts. They have, however, seldom thought about how to help students learn at these higher cognitive levels.

On the other hand, instead of carrying the entire burden for learning (i.e., see the "Atlas complex" in Finkel & Monk, 1983), instructors who use minitests to cover course content have two additional assets to work with. First, students already have a sound understanding of the key concepts (i.e., groups typically score 90% or better on the minitests). Second, the groups are both cohesive and quite effective at utilizing their members' intellectual resources (i.e., 97% of the groups will score higher than their best member on the minitests. See Michaelsen, Watson, & Black, 1989). Thus, with the support from their groups, students can successfully tackle problems that are far too difficult for even the most talented individuals working alone.

Characteristics of effective group assignments. Not all assignments, however, are equally helpful in building students' higher level cognitive skills. The nature of the group tasks has a tremendous effect on the quality of the learning experience they provide. To work well, application-oriented group assignments:

- must require the groups to produce a tangible output. Otherwise, neither the instructor nor the students will have any idea about the effectiveness of the groups.
- must be impossible to complete unless students understand course concepts. Otherwise, students are likely to see them as irrelevant "make work" projects, and neither the instructor nor students will have any idea how well the concepts are understood.
- must be difficult enough that very few, if any, of the students can successfully complete the assignments working alone. Otherwise, the majority of group members will sit back and watch the better students do the work.
- should allow the groups to spend the majority of their time engaged in the kinds of activities that groups do well (e.g., identifying problems, formulating strategies, processing information, making decisions) and a minimum of time engaged in activities that individuals could do more efficiently working alone (e.g., creating a polished written document).
- should give students the opportunity to practice dealing with the same kind of issues and problem situations they will encounter in later course work or in future jobs. Being able to see how the concepts apply to realistic problems is a tremendous asset to both motivation and learning.
- should be interesting and/or fun.

Ensuring the Development of Performance-Oriented Group Norms

Much of the effectiveness of group-based instructional approaches, including TL, is dependent upon the development of group norms that motivate individual members to attend class and be prepared for group work. Such group norms, however, will only develop if the instructor designs and manages the class so that groups are able to monitor and provide feedback to individual members. Three very simple but effective mechanisms for empowering the groups in this way include: 1) providing information that allows the students to assess their group's effectiveness relative to other groups (e.g., having students post their group minitest scores invariably results in cheers when groups do well and groans when their scores are low); 2) basing part of the grade on a peer evaluation; and 3) having groups maintain an ongoing record of their members' performance and attendance.

Peer evaluation. Peer evaluations serve a number of functions within the groups. Depending on the nature of the tasks one assigns to the groups, I recommend conducting the peer evaluation in one of two ways. One is by having students submit an assessment of members' contributions on a project-by-project basis (e.g., Abelson & Babcock, 1986). With this approach, individual scores are typically generated by multiplying the group score for the project by the average of the ratings received from the other members in the group. The other approach is having students provide an overall peer evaluation. In either case, however, it is important to use a scoring system that differentiates within, but not between, groups. Grading peers is difficult, and if students have the option of giving everyone in their group a high grade, that is exactly what they will do.[3]

Feedback on attendance and performance. Another effective way to encourage development of group norms for class preparation and attendance is to provide the groups with data on how their members are doing. I ensure that they have access to these data by attaching a form to the front of a folder that I hand out each time the class meets. The form requires that the groups keep track of how they are doing. It contains spaces where students fill in their own scores on the individual and group minitests and other assignments and indicate how many members (but not who) were absent and whether or not group members knew of the absences in advance. Even though the scores are shown according to ID numbers rather than names, the performance is public enough to support the development of strong group performance-oriented norms. In addition, having the groups record whether any absences were known in advance encourages both attendance and individual responsibility to the group.

Benefits of Using Comprehensive Group-Based Instruction

Using groups, even in a casual way, produces benefits that cannot be achieved with students in a passive role (see Bargh & Schul, 1980; Fiechtner & Davis, 1985; Slavin & Karweit, 1981). On the other hand, using groups in a comprehensive way allows the achievement of important outcomes that simply cannot be obtained unless the groups have a substantial degree of permanence. These include using instructional resources efficiently without sacrificing the ability to develop students' higher level cognitive skills, providing social support for students, promoting the development of interpersonal and group skills, and building and maintaining the enthusiasm of faculty members.

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[3] I typically give students an average of 10 points to assign among the *other* members of their group (i.e., 50 points in a six member group), prohibit individual raters from giving everyone the same score, and compute a score for each student that is the sum of the points they received from the other members of their group.

Using Instructional Resources Efficiently

A key advantage of using small groups in a comprehensive way is that they can be used to offset many of the disadvantages of large classes (e.g., Michaelsen, et al., 1982). For example, not only are they a highly effective means, they may be the only means of building students' higher-level cognitive skills in classes of up to several hundred students (see Kurfiss, 1988). Temporary groups can provide a valuable aid in small classes where the instructor's physical presence is sufficient to ensure that no one "escapes" (either physically or mentally) and that students are actually working on assigned tasks. In large classes, however, the situation is very different. Unlike TL groups, temporary groups simply cannot exert enough influence on their members to do such things as motivate attendance, handle discipline problems, and engage members who would benefit from group work but, given the opportunity, would rather work alone (e.g., see Light, 1990).

Providing Social Support for Students

The influence of groups used in a supplementary way typically ends when the class period is over, whereas students in TL classes have a social support base that is beneficial in many additional ways. For example, the same mechanisms that have been shown to reduce stereotypes of racial and ethnic minorities and physically handicapped students (see Johnson, Johnson, & Maruyama, 1983) and increase self-esteem among elementary and secondary students (see Johnson & Johnson, 1983), operate in college classrooms and have an extremely positive effect on students who would otherwise be disadvantaged. International students find lasting friendships and grow in their understanding of a new culture; older students discover that their accumulated life awareness is an appreciated and valuable asset; students who are at risk of dropping out form working relationships that assure them of help in future assignments and classes; and students who are having difficulty maneuvering their way through the campus bureaucracy have a ready source for answers to their questions and concerns.

Developing Interpersonal Skills

Students also benefit from interacting in a situation in which group work really counts. Unlike temporary groups where tough interpersonal issues can be avoided simply by waiting until the end of the class period, students in TL classes cannot really escape the problems they encounter in their groups. As a result, many learn lessons about themselves that allow them to be more effective and productive when they finish school and enter the work force. For example, students who are intellectually capable but socially unskilled, learn through exposure to more positive role models and through input from peers who have enough at stake that they are willing to give helpful (but not always positive) feedback. In addition, because students have to learn to work together, they develop the understandings and skills they need to work productively as task group members. Finally, part of effective group work is believing that the benefits of working in groups outweighs the costs. Unlike groups used in a supplementary way, the vast majority of TL groups provide solid evidence of the tremendous potential of effective groups.

The major benefit of TL is that the vast majority of students do, in fact, respond positively to the challenge. Although there are typically some initial struggles, the groups' capabilities steadily increase to the point that students feel more like colleagues than "empty vessels." As a result, students grow in self-confidence and build a sound understanding of both the concepts and ways to use them.

Building and Maintaining Instructor Enthusiasm for Teaching

Finally, but possibly most important, using comprehensive group-based teaching approaches, such as Team Learning, has a tremendous positive impact on the instructor. For example, being responsible for creating enthusiasm and excitement about basic, but essential, material is a burden that few are able to carry for long without burning out. As a result, even the most dedicated and talented instructors are likely to try to find ways of reducing their teaching load. Fortunately, with TL, the groups handle many of the aspects of teaching that, for most, are simply drudgery. For example, the instructor almost never has to go over basic concepts or answer simple questions. The minitests handle that task with ease and most of the remaining questions, even in basic courses, are challenging enough to be interesting. In addition, instructors rarely have to worry about attendance problems. Students come to class because they want to. As a result, the real challenge for instructors is finding challenging and interesting things for them to do once they get to class.

Another reason that TL builds enthusiasm for teaching is that most of the necessary changes are structural. Instead of trying to make one's presentations more interesting and exciting, the major focus is on designing courses to give students opportunities and incentives to accept more responsibility for ensuring that learning occurs. Thus, much of the new learning for instructors has to do with designing courses and group activities. In the class itself, the most difficult new skill for many instructors is learning to support groups in their struggles to become effective without making them dependent on outside help. The natural outcome of empowering groups with appropriate grading systems and meaningful assignments is that students willingly share responsibility to ensure that learning occurs. As a result, teaching with Team Learning is simply more fun.

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Conducting Discussions in the Diverse Classroom

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In this article the authors focus on conducting discussions in diverse classrooms. They begin by examining three cognitive frameworks that can help instructors appreciate the diversity of learning styles among students. They then review specific strategies that can be used not only to make classroom discussions more inclusive but also to foster diversity through discussions.

Two discoveries that a university instructor can make about the students in her/his classroom can have a profound effect on the quality of instruction. The first occurs with the realization that the sea of faces before her/him is not a monolithic block of identical thinkers, but is rather a group of unique individuals with a variety of abilities and needs. The second discovery is that lumping students into broad categories—jocks, African Americans, Asians, gays, non-traditional students, etc.—can be unproductive. By recognizing that students are intellectually, socially, and emotionally different, an instructor has begun to celebrate the diversity that exists among students.

Once diversity is acknowledged, it can be enhanced and used to advantage in all teaching but especially in classrooms where discussion is a primary method for achieving course goals. Gullette (1992) reminds us that class discussion offers students a taste of the pleasures of intellectual conversations and prepares them to be responsible members of a diverse society. Yet the process of conducting discussions in ways that are inclusive presents special challenges for the instructor. Meeting those challenges requires an understanding of the diversity that exists and specific strategies for working with it. In this article we examine various frameworks and strategies relevant to conducting discussions in diverse classrooms. We begin by examining three cognitive frameworks that have implications for class discussion and then turn to the works of Flick (1992), Collett (1990), and Billingsley (1991) for practical strategies.

Cognitive Frameworks

During the last few years, cognitive frameworks have been useful for helping teachers understand more fully the kinds of diversity that can be present in the classroom. Three frameworks that we have found to be particularly useful are Felder and Silverman's (1988) classification of learning styles, Perry's (1970; 1985) stages of cognitive development, and the work of Belenky and her colleagues (1986) on women's ways of knowing.

Felder and Silverman—Learning Styles

Differences in learning styles represent an important component of student diversity, for, as Claxton and Murrell (1987) suggest, "Information about style can help faculty become more sensitive to the differences students bring to the classroom" (p. iii). A variety of constructs to describe cognitive, affective, and physiological orientations of college students have been described by theorists (Grasha, 1990; Gregorc, 1979; Kolb, 1981; Myers, 1962; Witkin, 1976). We have found, however, that a less-well-known system developed by Felder and Silverman (1988) is particularly applicable to discussion learning. Their schema identifies five poles of learning style characteristics:

sensing learners	vs.	intuitive learners
visual learners	vs.	auditory learners
inductive learners	vs.	deductive learners
active learners	vs.	reflective learners
global learners	vs.	sequential learners

Learning styles printed in boldface are in the minority in the student body as a whole, are the opposite style of that of the majority of instructors, or are not sufficiently addressed by traditional teaching styles. In fact, as Felder and Silverman (1988) point out, teaching has traditionally favored learning that is intuitive, auditory, deductive, relative and sequential.

A gross mismatch between teaching techniques and learning techniques may well affect student learning. Students complain that they "don't get it," the instructor goes on the defensive, and classroom tension can rise to uncomfortable levels. In the end, students who feel that they do not fit in—especially the visual, the sensory, and the global learners—are likely to feel that they are inadequate or that something is wrong with them.

One reaction to this problem might be to give all students a common learning style inventory, such as the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (1962), to determine their learning styles and then to limit class registration to students sharing a particular learning style. This hypothetical solution, however, would not only be impractical but would also negate the advantages of diversity. Through use of Felder and Silverman's (1988) framework, instructors can begin to respond to the diversity of learners and develop a multi-dimensional repertoire of teaching techniques.

Courses with a certain amount of built-in redundancy will reflect a switch in emphasis from coverage of material to coverage of the various learning styles. *Sensing learners* will appreciate discussions involving concrete information as a complement to the theoretical foundations of the course. *Visual learners* will benefit when charts, videos, demonstrations, and transparencies are used as springboards for discussion. In order to reach *inductive learners,* discussions can begin at the level of observable phenomena before proceeding to the derivation of general rules. Some form of the Socratic method might suit this way of learning. *Active learners* can be assisted by being involved in group problem solving activities during class. *Global learners* can profit when reminded of the "big picture"—the encompassing framework for the day's material—and ways that the details of the discussion are related to it and to each other.

Felder and Silverman (1988) further suggest that instructors can motivate learning by trying to:

- establish the relevance of discussion topics to the real world and to the students' personal experiences;
- provide a balance between concrete data and abstract concepts, and between problem-solving and reflection;
- give students "wait time" for absorption of new material;
- encourage innovative thinking and creative solutions, even wrong ones;
- talk to students about different learning processes.

Perry and Cognitive Development

Perry (1970, 1985) has provided a detailed model of how the intellectual capacities of students evolve during their college years. According to Perry, students typically pass through different stages (Perry prefers to call them "positions") of development as their attitudes toward knowledge and authority evolve. Although Perry originally identified nine stages of development, those nine positions can be reviewed in four major stages.

In Perry's first major stage, *dualism*, a student focuses on black and white interpretations of reality. The learner, engaged in a search for a fixed, universal truth, often sits passively in the classroom and acts as a receptor of facts. For a student at this stage, class discussions can be initially disturbing. In fact, an entire semester might pass with this student looking perplexed and sitting silently through discussion after discussion. Although this student may approach the discussion leader at the end of the class and acknowledge that the discussion was interesting, she/he is still likely to request the correct answer. When they are less polite, such students say that they regard discussion as a waste of time and that teachers are not doing their jobs if they do not provide answers. Because discussions ultimately can be rewarding for learners who begin to recognize and tolerate diverse opinions, instructors need to encourage students at dualistic stages to be patient in looking for answers.

In time, students then move into the second of Perry's major stages, *multiplicity*, where diversity of values is tolerated when the "right answers" are not yet known. Students begin to realize that in some areas of knowledge, multiple points of view are unlikely to resolve themselves into a unified idea of truth. Kurfiss (1988) calls this recognition of multiplicity a "crucial turning point in the development of critical thinking" (p. 55). A student at this stage may irritatingly insist that his/her view is as valid as that of anyone else—including the instructor. Tactful guidance will lead such claimants toward a relativity that acknowledges the worth of conflicting views. With the student beginning to compare and contrast ideas, the discussion leader should gently point out strengths and weaknesses of the contrasting viewpoints.

Perry's third stage, *relativism*, represents the conventional model of a discussion participant. Students at this level realize that the best opinion is that with the strongest line of reasoning to support it. Thus, in discussions they attempt to build up consistent reasoning structures while trying to demonstrate weaknesses in arguments with which they disagree. These contextual relativists realize that ideas need to be judged differently according to the contexts in which they occur. The discussion leader can assist their move towards independent thought by demonstrating how to analyze and construct a sound argument.

With careful nurturing and good luck, learners will reach the fourth stage—*commitment in relativism*. The committed student focuses on the choice of a career and a set of values, coupled with an attempt to reach equilibrium in his or her internal personal conflict of ideas. The emphasis here is on how to judge positions. Knowledge comes to be viewed as having a context that leads us toward qualitative judgments. Students at this level can be valuable participants in free-flowing, impartial discussions of issues and ideas.

Because it is common to have several levels of development present in a class at the same time, matching the instructional process to the students' capacities can be extremely difficult. Explorations of some topics may be well over the head of less-developed students; yet if the instructor adjusts expectations to fulfill the needs of these students, more highly developed members of the class may be bored. Discussion leaders can help students to recognize and develop their intellectual capacities by attempting to:

- encourage lower-level thinkers in their attempts to grow and adapt;
- be supportive by providing a clear context when introducing and explaining topics;
- provide clear written guidelines and directions for small group work;
- sequence presentation of material so that increasingly complex issues are discussed;
- reinforce the belief that alternative views are legitimate;
- encourage students to develop and express their own viewpoints, especially by fostering risk-taking and classroom interaction;
- ask open-ended questions;
- demonstrate how to critique a theory or hypothesis;
- urge students to explain their ideas and analyses;
- focus explicitly on the nature of knowledge in the discipline.

Instructors can also assist students by sequencing the learning tasks assigned during the semester. Students at the initial levels of development, for example, can begin with discussions based largely on fact. As the weeks pass, instructors can increase the numbers of questions and tasks that require higher cognitive levels, thus mirroring and aiding the growth of sophistication among the students. In the excitement of pursuing intellectual topics with the more advanced learner, however, faculty should take care not to leave behind those who remain on a more basic level. Occasional redundancies in the learning tasks can ensure that all learners come away from discussions with some intellectual fruit. Although instructors cannot expect a noticeable change in every student during a single semester-long course, they can welcome change when it does occur and call it to the student's attention.

Belenky et al. and Women's Ways of Knowing

The work of Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986) supplements and adjusts Perry's study of cognitive development. Belenky and her colleagues argue that their study was necessary because Perry's (1970) groundbreaking study at Harvard was too focused on men's narratives and men's patterns "to uncover those themes that might be more prominent among women" (p. 9).

Belenky and her colleagues (1986) observed that the women they interviewed tended to treat learning and knowing as oriented to their own lives and experiences in a stronger way than the men that Perry interviewed. They then traced a pattern of cognitive development in women students. At their stage of *received knowledge* (similar to Perry's dualism) students rely on authorities for the truth, believing that there is always a right answer and an external truth outside themselves. At the *subjective knowledge* stage (analogous to Perry's multiplicity) students regard truth as being personal and internal and deriving from their own experience, which they carry with them in the form of intuition. These students tend to make judgments in terms of feelings. As with Perry's relativism, *procedural knowledge* is a level at which students associate truth with established methods of inquiry, but many women develop a style that seeks personal contextual clues to achieve understanding. *Constructed knowledge* (similar to Perry's commitment in relativism) is the integrative position of contextual knowing that we hope all of our students can attain. Belenky and her colleagues (1986) identify this stage as the one when women realize that "All knowledge is constructed, and the knower is an intimate part of the known" (p. 137).

Belenky et al. (1986) depart from Perry's model in describing the third stage (relativism/procedural knowledge) where they make the radical distinction between separate and connected knowing. They designate the man's approach to knowledge as *separate knowing*, the epistemology that has prevailed on American campuses throughout this century. This approach tends to be adversarial, viewing argumentation as the primary discourse mode. Separate knowing thrives whenever discussion is based on disagreement, with participants playing "the doubting game" and aiming to be "dispassionate, unbiased observers." Belenky et al. term the typical woman's approach *connected knowing*—a thought process long considered by academicians to be unproductive. Learners in this mode tend to suspend disbelief in an effort to understand other points of view. Students see themselves as part of a group of connected knowers, not isolated entities, and as "playing the believing game." Emotion, rather than being suppressed, is joined with reason. These voices utter personal narratives rather than arguments.

Although Clinchy (1990), in a more recent discussion of these issues, does not consider the disparate epistemic model—separate and connected knowing—to be gender-exclusive, she does conclude that women are predominantly connected knowers. Women, she suggests, tend to be less argumentative and less forceful in holding to one viewpoint, do not seek a standard truth, are able to sympathize with conflicting views, and are less detached and more involved in their approach to knowing.

The separate knower, speaking in the male, patriarchal voice, tends to be suspicious and disrespectful of this connected, female voice. It is during periods of classroom interaction that the diffidence of the connected knowers can work to their disadvantage. If instructors encourage students to attack theories, attack authors, and attack each other, only the isolated, separate knowers are being satisfied. The silence of so many women students in confrontational classrooms comes as no surprise. In addition, this research explains the alienation felt by other marginalized groups—African Americans, Native Americans, Hispanics—who do not partake of a tradition that seeks truth through conflict and classroom skirmishing (Anderson & Adams, 1992). Connected knowers are thus reluctant to speak in classroom discussions, not because any overt sexism or racism is being practiced but because the atmosphere of challenge and objectivity carries a negative charge for them.

On the other hand, when credence and acceptance are extended to both kinds of knowing, more voices can be heard, thus broadening the educational experience of the group as a whole. To achieve this expansion of voices, faculty can adjust their concept of class discussion from one in which participants take the floor to present and defend their opinions to one in which collaboration and group achievement are valued. Similarly, by encouraging students to view knowledge not as a body of objective facts but as a group event in which all individuals participate as knowers, faculty can help their students become constructed knowers.

A number of researchers have identified ways to address potential differences in students' ways of knowing. Krupnick (1985), for instance, after analyzing teacher-student interaction at length through videotapes of classes, concluded that male students typically speak more often in class than female students and that this tendency increases when the instructor is a male. Confirming the conclusions of Belenky and associates (1986), Krupnick observes that men talk in longer more organized speeches while women cluster their contributions to discussions in overlapping supportive bursts with frequent interruptions by other women. Krupnick suggests that to work towards equal gender representation in classroom discussions, the instructor can:

- ask men and women students the same kinds of questions without reserving abstract, factual, or difficult questions for one gender;
- sequence participants' responses, so that neither gender has a monopoly;
- protect speakers from interruptions;
- intervene when rapid-fire comments prevent students from completing their contributions.

These and similar strategies, Krupnick believes, can "prevent inadvertent discrimination against women" by giving every student a fair chance to speak (p. 25).

Maher and Tetreault (1992) distinguish between discussions based on male techniques of investigation (teacher asks questions) and those based on female techniques (students ask questions). As a result of their analysis of gender differences in discussion contexts, they conclude that the male pattern of equating domination and univocality with mastery of material reflects the limitation of vision associated with Perry's dualism or Belenky's received knowledge. Discussion leaders can challenge themselves and their students to carry the quest for knowledge forward by relinquishing authority and reasserting it only when necessary to clarify sticky points, suggest alternatives, or assist students.

Additional Strategies for Facilitating Discussion in the Diverse Classroom

Although knowledge of the previously-discussed frameworks is useful for helping instructors begin to address diversity in cognitive development, there is a need for additional specific strategies to assist instructors in working with the diversity in their classrooms, particularly cultural diversity. When issues related to cognitive development and gender differences in ways of knowing are combined with issues of culturally diverse classrooms, instructors need a broad repertoire of instructional strategies for conducting discussions. Collett (1990), in his article on the culturally diverse classroom, suggests that "There is a growing body of research on culture based learning styles and the academic problems of underrepresented students. But, as usual, there is much less that is practical and helpful in the way of suggestions for changing teaching and learning" (p. 182). Based on the work of Flick (1992), Collett (1990), and Billingsley (1991), the next section of this article, then, identifies specific strategies for facilitating discussion in the diverse classroom.

Flick—Inclusive Teaching

Flick (1992) provides a number of insights that assist instructors in being inclusive during discussions. For instance, faculty can consciously practice fairness by presenting various sides of controversial issues as impartially as possible without offending any individual or group. Students can develop sensitivity toward controversial issues, according to Flick, by investigating the origins and factual basis of stereotypes involving cultural, racial, or gender issues that arise during a discussion. During the process, the careful instructor will avoid tokenism by ensuring that the introduction of diverse perspectives or the names of scholars is natural and not artificial to the context. Flick advises instructors not to ask specific students for the "African-American point of view" or the "woman's point of view," because such questions inappropriately imply that all members of ethnic and gender groups share a single perspective. Flick (1992) also suggests that instructors, as role models for the students, should share their own processes "of developing awareness of gender, class, sexual orientation, and race/ethnic stereotypes and issues" (p. 5). In this way, students can begin to recognize how their own values develop and be encouraged to value diversity in their academic and post-college lives.

Collett—Teaching in the Culturally Diverse Classroom

Collett (1990) has published some thoughtful advice for instructors in culturally-diverse classrooms. Although much of this advice applies to teaching in general, it is especially applicable to conducting discussions. In his efforts to provide specific strategies, Collett suggests that instructors:

- be aware that no matter how liberated we may feel, our learning style will still be culture bound. We should "avoid the quite natural tendency to reward students who act and think as we do" (p. 182).
- tolerate "disorder" and emotion in the classroom. Get students more involved in the classroom by shifting responsibility for learning from teacher to students while keeping clear objectives in view.
- have high expectations for every student, recognizing his/her ability to learn and offer new meanings to fellow students and the instructor.
- intervene in a friendly way with students who are having difficulty. Invite them to office hours, speak to them before and after class, have lunch with them. The goal here is not friendship but encouragement.

- early in the course, hold a class discussion concerning how learning in your discipline is affected by a multicultural point of view.
- in a class of students representing a wide mix of backgrounds, pause during the semester for what Collett refers to as "pressure release sessions." Students can air their opinions of the teacher and teaching methods, and differences among the students can be brought to the surface.

Billingsley—Fostering Diversity Through Discussion

In addition to the specific strategies already mentioned for inclusive teaching in the diverse classroom, Billingsley (1991) provides ideas for fostering diversity through discussion. Billingsley writes persuasively on the ways that discussion can increase student awareness by overcoming obstacles to the free interchange of ideas, including lack of knowledge about the diversity of experience in America, unrealized prejudices, and feelings of guilt, anger, frustration, and anxiety that are aroused when diversity issues are discussed. He then provides strategies for increasing awareness of diversity through discussions. Billingsley's specific strategies are paraphrased in the paragraphs that follow:

1. It is essential to promote an environment in which students can comfortably engage in reasoned and fair discussion so that all students will feel empowered. The signal that will be sent out is that students are "equal agents who all have something significant to contribute to a common enterprise" (p. 1). In this environment meaningful human exchange can occur despite the confusion and fear that might prevail outside the classroom. All class members can thus experience "a common ground of mutual experiences and respect that can bind students together and simultaneously make it easier to understand and celebrate many differences" (pp. 1-2).
2. Instructors, too, need to feel comfortable handling the discussion of issues that may expose emotional sores and fears. In addition to establishing a content of diversity, they will have to develop a process of handling discussions that demonstrates the value of diversity because students observe and learn from behaviors of teachers as much as from their rhetoric. By modeling impartial reasoning, instructors can encourage the development of critical thinking skills among students, especially the ability to appreciate sophisticated multiple perspectives on complex intellectual and moral issues.
3. An environment of trust and mutual respect can be created through activities that allow students to become acquainted. For example, a first

day of class activity can have them ask each other's first and last names and majors.

4. A productive strategy is to celebrate everyone and to denigrate no one. Individual students should not be held responsible for the ethnocentric behavior of a group; therefore, all students will retain the right to choose the groups and issues they identify with or disregard. Should students choose to speak as members of a group, their remarks become a resource that can be utilized and incorporated into the classroom dialogue.
5. Instructors can universalize the ethnic or gender experience whenever possible so that students can identify with those that they might have previously seen as "other." In the context of their disciplines, instructors may want to illustrate how people of diverse identities share many common problems, issues and solutions. In Billingsley's (1991) words, "Students need to experience the marvelous paradox of human diversity, that we are all the same in different ways" (p. 3).
6. The class can examine how prejudicial behavior has opposed the expression of diversity in the past by creating negative stereotypes. Students can investigate the psychological, economic, and political reasons for the undermining of diversity in various societies. Instances showing the destructiveness of stereotyping can be drawn from the immediate environment as long as they are not embarrassing to participants in the class.
7. Instructors can use discussion to indicate to students the arbitrary nature of cultural and intellectual agendas. Through discussion, students will discover that individual behaviors or achievements are judged only by conventions that various cultural groups have established.
8. Where appropriate, instructors can give examples from their disciplines to show how various cultural, racial, or gender groups have contributed to western history and civilization. In small groups students can discuss problems of universal significance exploring their life experiences in the search for commonalities.
9. If a sharp difference of opinion arises between two students, one of them can be asked to explain her/his individual position. The other can then explain in his/her own words what the first student has said. When the first speaker is satisfied that she/he has been understood accurately, the two can reverse roles. In this way accuracy of communication and mutual respect can be encouraged.
10. If students become truly abusive in an argument, the instructor can intercede, taking the place of the student that is being attacked and answering for him/her until tempers cool and the two adversaries can face one another in a calmer manner.

11. Finally, instructors can invite and attract students to their classes who represent diversity by notifying their college's counseling and advising staffs that they are interested in diversity issues. Participation of students from diverse backgrounds will provide a wider range of input than is available from a homogeneous group.

Conclusion

It is important for all instructors to understand and appreciate the diversity that exists among students. When instructors choose class discussion as a primary method for achieving course goals, it is particularly crucial that they have ways of thinking about that diversity and strategies to address it. Although the cognitive frameworks discussed in this article do not explain all the diversity that might exist in a classroom, they do provide some insights that can help instructors understand that the male Eurocentric cultural style cannot prevail if class discussions are to be successful. When instructors combine such understanding with specific strategies for inclusive teaching, they can be much better prepared to conduct discussions that not only respect diversity but also foster its development.

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Not Another Inventory, Rather a Catalyst for Reflection

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In this article the authors focus on the use of a modal preferences questionnaire as a catalyst to empower students to reflect on their own sensory preferences and modify their study methods accordingly. The authors discuss the development and use of the questionnaire, strategies for students to use in modifying their learning behavior, responses of students and faculty to the technique, and directions for further investigation of modal preferences.

Over the last four decades the literature from both psychology and education has supported the proposition that learners of all ages have different yet consistent ways of responding in learning situations. These behaviors or predispositions to behave in a particular fashion have been termed learning styles (Claxton & Ralston, 1978; Grasha, 1990; Price, 1983) or cognitive styles (Goldstein & Blackman, 1978; Knox, 1977; Witkin & Goodenough, 1982). Research has spawned a wide range of inventories with which to assess the various style dimensions that have been identified (e.g., Canfield & Lafferty, 1974; Dunn, Dunn, & Price, 1987; Honey & Mumford, 1982; Kolb, 1984). Smith (1982) reviews fifteen such instruments for identifying learning styles. These measurement tools tend to focus on a collection of style dimensions to provide a profile of a learner's style.

The implications for teachers of the stylistic variation present in groups of learners has been discussed extensively in the literature (Cronbach & Snow, 1977; Hiemstra & Sisco, 1990; Kirby, 1979; Kogan, 1971; Martens, 1975; Messick, 1970; Schmeck, 1988; Tennant, 1988). Much has been written on the desirability of matching teaching methods to students' learning styles (Conti, 1985; Cronbach & Snow; 1977; Faurier, 1984). If we assume that the matching of presentational style and learner styles is a desirable objective, teachers face an incredibly demanding task. The range of style dimensions and therefore the combinations that might occur in one particular student group are likely to be so extensive that teachers are unable to extend their repertoire of teaching methods to encompass all of them (Mills, 1989).

Our collective observational experiences as teacher trainers and as an inspector of secondary schools in over 8000 classrooms during the last nine years have reinforced our belief that it is simply not realistic to expect teachers to provide programs that accommodate the learning style diversity present in their classes, even if they can establish the nature and extent of that diversity. We have come to the conclusion that the most realistic approach to the accommodation of learning styles in teaching programs should involve empowering students through knowledge of their own learning styles to adjust their learning behavior to the learning programs they encounter. This suggestion is not to say that we believe teachers should not consider the learning styles when developing and delivering instructional programs. Rather, we believe in assisting students to know themselves and to operate in a metacognitive fashion to make adjustments in their learning behaviors (Biggs, 1987; Flavell, 1976).

Students are in no better position than their teachers to understand and assess the wide range of dimensions that collectively form an individual's learning style. The literature is too extensive and provides limited assistance in determining which particular dimensions need to be addressed to gain a complete or at least comprehensive understanding of the nature of learning style. We therefore looked for a dimension of learning style that had some degree of pre-eminence over other dimensions.

By questioning students, we found that many students attributed their learning difficulties to the form in which course material was presented. Some students found they had difficulties learning in situations where the course material was only presented orally, while others reported similar difficulties when the material was primarily in written form. Still other students experienced difficulty with ideas that were presented in graphics or without any associated concrete experiences. These insights prompted us to focus on sensory modality as a learning style dimension that had some pre-eminence over others. The notion that the way information is initially taken in by a learner influences what subsequently occurs has intuitive appeal.

We found support for this notion in literature on neuro-linguistic programming (NLP) (Bandler, 1976, 1979; McLeod, 1990; Stirling, 1987) that discussed the different perceptual modalities (aural, visual, and kinesthetic). The following questions were suggested from our exploration of this field of study, split-brain research (Gazzaniga, 1973; Sperry, 1973; Springer & Deutsch, 1985) and left brain/right brain modalities (Buzan, 1991; Edwards, 1979):

- How can students be encouraged to reflect on the nature, extent and implications of their sensory modalities?
- As a consequence of exploring their sensory modality preference, will students modify their existing learning strategies in ways that assist their learning?

Our experience with the administration of learning style inventories did not encourage us to believe that the use of an inventory was going to be the most effective way of encouraging students to reflect upon their sensory modality preferences. We knew that students often found inventories tedious to complete and at times difficult to respond to because of their generality. Many inventories also lacked supportive strategies to assist students after they had been diagnosed. Students usually fell into two categories: those who enjoyed ascribing labels to their behavior and those who were suspicious of any measure that claimed to be able to establish that they behaved in predictable ways.

Our attention therefore turned away from inventories. We sought, instead, a simple technique that would promote reflection on sensory modality and would be characterized by its brevity, simplicity, and ability to encourage students to describe their behavior in a manner they could identify with and accept. We believed that if students could be intimately involved in the process that produced a description of their own sensory modality preferences, they might be more likely to use it in subsequent learning.

Developing a Technique

The Catalyst

The first task was to design a technique that would focus students' attention on ways they address information. Rather than a simple diagnostic tool, we wanted something that would serve as a catalyst for discussion and debate and encourage students to collaborate in the process. We believed the technique had to be something that drew on common experiences and did not introduce abstract notions. A simple questionnaire was therefore devised with the questions drawn from observations students had shared, personal observations of our own modal preferences, and preferences reported by friends (Appendix A). Some of the questions were prompted by discussions of how some people can navigate better than others. Other questions came from reflecting on the ways people chose to remember or ignore different sensory cues such as shopping lists or verbal instructions. Because we were seeking a quick and easy catalyst for discussion rather than an elaborate diagnostic tool, we decided that 13 questions would be adequate. In addition, we established that because the instrument would be used primarily to stimulate reflection and discussion, testing for construct validity and reliability was unnecessary and inappropriate.

Although we started with Stirling's (1987) three categories of visual, aural, and kinesthetic, we found that the categories appeared to be insufficient to account for the more detailed differences we noted among students. Even though our eyes are used to taking in all visual information, the information itself differs. The first preference includes diagrammatic material often used by teachers to symbolize information (e.g., graphs, charts, flow charts, models, and all the symbolic arrows, circles, hierarchies and other devices used by teachers to represent what could have been printed information). Second, there is information that is largely composed of printed words from which some students appear to get a greater or lesser degree of understanding. Although both use the visual sense, for the purposes of the questionnaire, this visual preference was divided into two perceptual modes:

1. Visual (V)	preference for graphical and symbolic ways of representing information.
2. Read/Write (R)	preferences for information printed as words.

The third perceptual mode, aural (A), describes a preference for "heard" information. Students who prefer aural forms of information dissemination report that they learn best from lectures, tutorials, and discussion with other students and faculty.

The fourth perceptual mode, kinesthetic (K), provides some difficulties because it is multi-modal and because of the different ways in which the word is used. For the questionnaire it was defined as the perceptual preference related to the use of experience and practice (simulated or real). In that sense it is not a single mode because experience and practice may be expressed or "taken in" using all perceptual modes—sight, touch, taste, smell and hearing.

However, a kinesthetic teaching experience is defined as one in which all or any of these perceptual modes are used to connect the student to reality, either through experience, example, practice, or simulation. To offer these experiences, the teachers may be presenting information visually (V), aurally (A), or in a read/write fashion (R), but the experience is kinesthetic because of the integrative and real nature of the information. A teacher who chooses to provide "guns and butter" examples of the economic concept of supply and demand—regardless of whether visual, aural, or read/write modes are used—is presenting information in a kinesthetic fashion. Such "guns and butter" examples could not be used as a basis for questions in the questionnaire, however, as the intention was to design a questionnaire that was not subject or discipline specific. Situations from everyday life were therefore chosen for 12 of the 13 questions.

In the final questionnaire, the 13 questions are presented in multiple-choice format. To be included from our original list, a question had to allow for the expression of three or four modal preferences (V, A, R, K). These modal preferences are offered as alternative actions in response to each question. Each question attempts to place readers in a situation within their experience and asks for a perception of their preferred action. For example:

> Question Ten: You are not sure whether a word should be spelled 'dependent' or 'dependant'. Do you:
> R) look it up in the dictionary.
> V) see the word in your mind and choose the best way it looks.
> A) sound it out in your mind.
> K) write both versions down.

In the early stages of the development of the questionnaire, an attempt was made to include only those questions in which the context was one of "receiving information." Because this criterion became too limiting, the questionnaire now contains questions dealing with both presenting and processing information. Questions numbered 2, 4, 7, 8, 9 and 13 relate to a context in which information is being received. In questions 1, 3 and 5 respondents are put into a context of sending information, and in the remaining four questions (6, 10, 11 and 12) the context is one of cognitive processing for decision making (see Appendix A). No attempt is made to separate these three contexts in the scoring system.

Although the questions were designed to be as culturally neutral as possible, question 8 uses some proprietary games (Pictionary, charades and Scrabble) with which students need to be familiar in order to complete the questionnaire. The alternatives within each question were designed to be balanced in intensity so that no one choice is seen as being determined by the situation.

To allow for the fact that we all use a variety of perceptual modes, we provided for the possibility of multiple answers for each question. All answers are counted. Thus, some respondents may select a greater number of alternatives than others. It also means that there is less need to balance the modes within each question and within the questionnaire. In four questions there are three choices. The remainder have four choices. The sum of the alternative answers for each modal preference slightly favors the R mode (Visual, 12; Aural, 12; Read/Write, 13; Kinesthetic, 11).

A Pattern for Discussion

The modal preference profiles that emerge are discussed with individual students. In all cases the profiles are promoted as insights and not as definitive diagnoses. Usually a general explanation of various common profiles is given, accompanied by anecdotal evidence of how knowledge gained from the questionnaire has helped other students. Students are encouraged to challenge their personal profiles. In this way they are actively encouraged to establish the validity of their profiles by thinking about their general applicability. In some cases, students who have adopted strategies aligned to their preferences are asked to address groups of students.

The discussions with students focus on: 1) the way information is presented in classes; 2) ways in which students take notes; 3) ways in which students make notes from their reading; and 4) strategies for memorizing for assessment tasks.

Help Sheets

During the early trials, students who produced profiles that were dominated by one sort of response (i.e., V, A, R, or K) were questioned in depth about the way they preferred information to be presented by faculty. They were also asked to provide examples of their study notes. From the data gathered, lists of note-taking and note-making strategies were compiled for each type of sensory modality preference. These lists form the basis for the handout "help" sheets (Appendix B) that give students ideas on how to use the preferences they have identified to improve their learning.

After the profiles that emerge from the questionnaire are discussed, these "help" sheets (Appendix B) are distributed to students. Students are then encouraged to consider the suggestions on the "help sheet" in relation to their learning practices. Possible modifications to study practices are briefly discussed and the students make an appointment to report back on the effects of any changes they subsequently make.

Using the Technique

The technique has been used in a number of different ways. First, it has been used in one-to-one student counseling for those who seek strategies for improving their learning. Second, it has been used with groups of faculty. The third and most common use has been with classes of students. In each case the process has begun by having participants complete the questionnaire.

In all cases participants are advised that they may record more than one option for any question. If all of the options are appropriate, they are asked to indicate what their first preference might be. For situations that lie outside their experience, they are requested to leave the answer blank. We have observed that most students can complete the questionnaire in four to six minutes, and verbal reports indicate that they can easily relate to the situations in the questions.

On completing the questionnaire, respondents are asked simply to sum the occurrences of their preferences for each mode. This procedure results in four scores, one for each modal preference. Because students can select more than one option for each question and because they can omit questions, the sum of the four preference scores on the questionnaire will vary among individuals. The scores are then perused to determine a modal preference based on a simple numerical dominance of one mode over others. For example, a student scoring 2 visual options (V), 4 aural options (A), 8 read/write (R) options and 2 kinesthetic options (K) would be counted as having an R preference. When there is a tie between two or more modal preferences, the result is considered a double or triple tied preference (e.g., VA or ARK).

It has been the close match between the anecdotal evidence and the questionnaire and help sheet data that has led to our confidence in the ability of the questionnaire to provide valid insights into the ways students deal with information. In addition, students' responses have encouraged us to believe that the technique as a whole is an effective way of promoting active reflection by students on their learning activities. Students, convinced that the insights that they have gained are valid, have been quick to revise their learning behavior.

The use of the questionnaire has generated a wide range of response patterns that have been subsequently endorsed in the discussions with students. The following comments are from students who have adopted strategies to match the strengths reflected in their modality preferences. Their modality preferences as indicated by the questionnaire are shown in parentheses.

> *I rearranged my study notes for the four subjects in four different colors. That way I can easily filter out the stuff I need when I am doing an exam for Economics because it is all in green. (visual preference)*
>
> *Yesterday I bought my first Thesaurus. I have a dictionary for each of my science subjects - ecology, biology etc. I think words are wonderful. I build a glossary for my subjects too. (read/write preference)*
>
> *When I am in an exam and I am not sure of an answer I can pause and 'hear' Andrew (lecturer in law) talking about a topic. I just listen in until he 'tells' me the answer. (aural preference)*
>
> *I have rearranged my notes so that the examples come first. It is so much easier to remember the stories—better than having the heavy principles' stuff first. I put the principles, rules and formulae last. (kinesthetic preference)*
>
> *I end up with real scrappy notes in the lectures, 'coz I get hooked into listening to the interesting stuff in the lecture. When I see what others have written—I panic. Since I did the questionnaire I leave space to fill in what I miss through listening. (aural preference)*

Follow-up interviews with students have provided clear evidence that students are using the insights gained from their questionnaire results and subsequent discussion to reflect upon and modify their note-taking and note-making practices. The following comments were made by students who monitored the effects of changing their study strategies to be consistent with their modality strengths.

> *I got my first A grade by using the things on the sheet (Appendix B). My notes now are all done as a read-writer.*
>
> *It is excellent. I have an aural flat mate and we get together and talk about our learning at study time. We both seem to learn better from talking things through.*
>
> *Since I attended the study skills session I have used a Walkman (audio cassette player) for my own study summaries. Before the big tests I walk around the campus hearing myself. It works.*
>
> *All my notes now are done as diagrams. The words are still important but I try to think of a picture which comes from the words. It worked last semester. There seemed to be less to learn.*

> *I used to write things out several times and I tried mnemonics but I didn't do very well. I need to relate things to the real world. If I can get a real-life example it helps my learning.*
>
> *I don't use the set text. I found this other book which has a visual approach. I use different highlighters in it to show the bits to remember; similarities, contrasts, definitions and things.*

Faculty, too, have found that the questionnaire provides a simple but effective framework for reflecting on how they present information. The faculty interest in using the technique is particularly exciting, because we believe that to assist one student with information about modal preferences is not as effective as increasing the sensitivity of one professor to the potential for modal diversity in a class. Previously the exhortations to present course content using the range of sensory modes had little impact. Since administering the questionnaire to faculty and sharing with them the results gathered from students, there is an increased awareness of, and interest in, varying the teaching approaches to accommodate modal diversity. What was once an unconscious strategy of the effective teacher has become a deliberate strategy. One science lecturer noted:

> *I realize I have been requesting R & W assessment and examples for my students. Now I need to provide more variation in both my lectures and assessment.*

One professor is now searching for kinesthetic and visual examples of his economic theory content that previously tended to be taught only in a read/write mode. Similarly a biology professor is skillfully adding various diagrammatic examples of the systems to the typical kinesthetic experiences that are studied in the laboratories. Professors are reporting positive feedback from students when they attempt to make their teaching more multi-modal.

Discussion

Two general observations have emerged from the data generated by the questionnaire and the associated interviews:

1. The questionnaire does provide a basis for assisting students to reflect upon their modal preferences.
2. The individual response profiles generated by the questionnaire are supported by later discussion.

Each of these observations encourages us to believe the technique is useful for focusing students' attention on the sensory components of learning. The strength of the questionnaire appears to lie in its ability to act as a catalyst and framework for reflection and discussion of learning practices, including note-taking, note-making, and test and examination study. Students find the technique provides a framework that is consistent with their rational, intuitive notions about how they address information in learning situations. They therefore have no difficulty accepting the notion that adjustments to the way they take and make notes should be in accordance with their modality preferences and could benefit their learning effectiveness. The questionnaire and associated discussion appear to be encouraging metacognitive activity.

The next developments could take several directions. The possibilities that have been suggested include:

- a longitudinal study of the effects of students' identifying their modal preferences and adopting new strategies. There is a growing body of anecdotal information, but it would be helpful to have a more focused study of the detailed effects on some students' modifications of their learning-strategy.
- a study of the effects of multi-modal presentation of course content. Some faculty are extending their course content and teaching methods to cope with the different modal preferences. The impact of modal preferences on instructional design would be a worthwhile further study.
- a demographic study—including sex, age, race, and socio-economic parameters—of the results from use of the handout sheet.
- a study of students with strong uni-modal preferences as contrasted with those who have multi-modal preferences. There appears to be more multi-modal preferences with more mature students but that is a judgment based on anecdotal information rather than quantitative or qualitative analyses.
- an alignment of this questionnaire with an inventory of cognitive processing or of personality traits. There is a rich background of research and a wealth of database information on some of the widely-used personality and cognitive-processing inventories. The modal perception questionnaire could be conjointly used with an inventory to assess any linkages between perceptual preferences, cognitive strategies and personality traits.
- a study examining differences in the modal preferences of students and faculty. There is clearly a great deal of variability in the way both students and faculty address information. So far we have noticed general trends that do appear to be significant. For example, students appear to be less likely to show a strong preference for the read/write mode than

faculty. In contrast, faculty are more likely to prefer a read/write mode than any of the other modes. Students with no particularly strong preference tend to be older students. All of these trends warrant further investigation.

- a link between the questionnaire and a fuller but validated diagnostic instrument.

Conclusion

Faculty developers are in search of strategies that encourage teachers to use a variety of modes in their presentations. Extending repertoires has become a touchstone for improved quality in teaching. The use of the modal preferences questionnaire at our university has empowered students to reflect upon their sensory preferences and to modify their study methods accordingly. Furthermore, the questionnaire appears to have increased the level of discussion about learning throughout the institution. The positive support from a growing number of students has filtered back to the faculty and is encouraging them to make changes. Although it is not yet possible to document the effect of these changes in terms of learning, at this stage the questionnaire is identifying differences, provoking reflection on learning and teaching practices and receiving favorable comments from both students and staff. Further research and development will be necessary to capitalize on these benefits in terms of improvements in teaching and learning outcomes.

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Appendix A

How Do I Learn Best

This test is to find out something about your preferred learning method. Research on left brain/right brain differences and also on learning and personality differences suggests that each person has preferred ways to receive and communicate information.

Choose the answer that best explains your preference and put the key letter in the box. If a single answer does not match your perception, please enter two or more choices in the box. Leave blank any question that does not apply.

1. You are about to give directions to a person. She is staying in a hotel in town and wants to visit your house. She has a rental car. Would you:
   V) draw a map on paper?
   A) tell her the directions?
   R) write down the directions (without a map)?
   K) collect her from the hotel in your car? ☐
2. You are staying in a hotel and have a rental car. You would like to visit a friend whose address/location you do not know. Would you like them to:
   V) draw you a map on paper?
   A) tell you the directions by phone?
   R) write down the directions (without a map)?
   K) collect you from the hotel in their car? ☐
3. You have just received a copy of your itinerary for a world trip. This is of interest to a friend. Would you:
   A) ring her immediately and tell her about it?
   R) send her a copy of the printed itinerary?
   V) show her on a map of the world? ☐
4. You are going to cook a dessert as a special treat for your family. Do you:
   K) cook something familiar without need for instructions?
   V) thumb through the cookbook looking for ideas from the pictures?
   R) refer to a specific cookbook where there is a good recipe?
   A) ask for advice from others? ☐
5. A group of tourists have been assigned to you to find out about national parks. Would you:
   K) drive them to a national park?
   V) show them slides and photographs?
   R) give them a book on national parks?
   A) give them a talk on national parks? ☐
6. You are about to purchase a new stereo. Other than price, what would most influence your decision?
   A) A friend talking about it
   R) Reading the details about it
   K) Listening to it
   V) It looks really upmarket ☐
7. Recall a time in your life when you learned how to do something like playing a new board game. Try to avoid choosing a very physical skill e.g. riding a bike.
   How did you learn best? By:
   V) visual clues - pictures, diagrams, charts?
   R) written instructions?
   A) listening to somebody explaining it?
   K) doing it? ☐

Summary of this page V☐ A☐ R☐ K☐

8. Which of these games do you prefer?
   - V) Pictionary
   - R) Scrabble
   - K) Charades ☐
9. You are about to learn to use a new program on a computer. Would you:
   - K) ask a friend to show you?
   - R) read the manual which comes with the program?
   - A) telephone a friend and ask questions about it? ☐
10. You are not sure whether a word should be spelled 'dependent' or 'dependant'. Do you:
    - R) look it up in the dictionary?
    - V) see the word in your mind and choose the best way it looks?
    - A) sound it out in your mind?
    - K) write both versions down? ☐
11. Apart from price, what would most influence your decision to buy a particular textbook?
    - K) Using a friend's copy
    - A) A friend talking about it
    - R) Skim reading of parts of it
    - V) It looks OK ☐
12. A new movie has arrived in town. What would most influence your decision to go (or not go)?
    - A) Friends talked about it.
    - R) You read a review about it.
    - V) You saw a preview of it. ☐
13. Do you prefer a lecturer/teacher who likes to use:
    - R) handouts and/or a textbook?
    - V) flow diagrams, charts, slides?
    - K) field trips, labs, practical sessions?
    - A) discussion, guest speakers? ☐

Summary of this page	V☐	A☐	R☐	K☐
Total of both pages	V☐	A☐	R☐	K☐

Neil D Fleming
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Appendix B

Handout sheets to help students adopt new strategies. These are used as discussion points when interviewing students, after the questionnaire has been completed.

V

If you have a strong preference for Visual (V) learning you should use some or all of the following:

INTAKE
To take in the information

underlining
different colors
highlighters
symbols
flow charts
charts
graphs
pictures, videos, posters, slides
different spatial arrangements on the page
white space
textbooks with diagrams, pictures
lecturers who use gestures and picturesque language

SWOT
Study without tears
To make a learnable package.

Convert your lecture 'notes' into a learnable package by reducing them (3:1) into page pictures.

Use all techniques above to do this.
Reconstruct the images in different ways - try different spatial arrangements.
Redraw your pages from memory.
Replace words with symbols or initials.
Look at your pages.

OUTPUT
To perform well in the examination

Recall the 'pictures' of pages.
Draw - use diagrams where appropriate.
Write exam answers.
Practice turning your visuals back into words.

You are holistic rather than reductionist in your approach. You want the whole picture. Visual learners do not like handouts, words, lectures, textbooks or assessment that hinge on word usage, syntax and grammar. You are going to watch TV.

A

If you have a strong preference for learning by Aural methods (A = hearing) you should use some or all of the following:

INTAKE
To take in the
information

attend lectures
attend tutorials
discuss topics with other students
discuss topics with your lecturers
explain new ideas to other people
use a tape recorder
remember the interesting examples, stories, jokes...
describe the overheads, pictures and other visuals to somebody who was not there
leave spaces in your lecture notes for later recall and 'filling'

SWOT
Study without tears
To make a learnable package.

Convert your lecture notes into a learnable package by reducing them (3:1)

Your lecture notes may be poor because you prefer to listen. You will need to expand your notes by talking with others and collecting notes from the textbook.
Put your summarized notes onto tapes and listen to them.
Ask others to 'hear' your understanding of a topic.
Read your summarized notes aloud.
Explain your notes to another 'aural' person.

OUTPUT
To perform well in
the examination

Talk with the examiner.
Listen to your voices and write them down.
Spend time in quiet places recalling the ideas.
Practice writing answers to old exam questions.
Speak your answers.

You prefer to have all of this page explained to you. The written words are not as valuable as those you hear. You will probably go and tell somebody about this.

R & W

If you have a strong preference for learning by Reading and Writing (R & W) you should use some or all of the following:

INTAKE
To take in the information

lists
headings
dictionaries
glossaries
definitions
handouts
textbooks
readings - library
lecture notes (verbatim)
lecturers who use words well and have lots of information in sentences and notes
essays
manuals (computing and laboratory)

SWOT
Study without tears
To make a learnable package.

Convert your lecture notes into a learnable package by reducing them (3:1)

Write out the words again and again.
Read your notes (silently) again and again.
Rewrite the ideas, principles into other words.
Organize any diagrams, graphs... into statements e.g. "The trend is..."
Turn reactions, actions, charts and flows into words.
Imagine your lists arranged in multi-choice questions and distinguish each from each.

OUTPUT
To perform well in the examination

Write exam answers.
Practice with multiple choice questions.
Write paragraphs, beginnings, endings.
Write your lists (a,b,c,d, 1,2,3,4,).
Arrange your words into hierarchies and points.

You like this page because the emphasis is on words and lists. You believe the meanings are within the words, so the talk was OK, but this handout is better. You are heading for the library.

K

If you have a strong preference for Kinesthetic (doing) learning you should use some or all of the following:

INTAKE
To take in the information

all your senses - sight, touch, taste, smell, hearing ...
laboratories
field trips
field tours
examples of principles
lecturers who give real-life examples
applications
hands-on approaches (computing)
trial and error
collections of rock types, plants, shells, grasses...
exhibits, samples, photographs...
recipes--solutions to problems
previous exam papers

SWOT
Study without tears
To make a learnable package.

Convert your lecture notes into a learnable package by reducing them (3:1)

Your lecture notes may be poor because the topics were not 'concrete' or 'relevant'.
You will remember the 'real' things that happened.
Put plenty of examples into your summary. Use case studies and applications to help with principles and abstract concepts.
Talk about your notes with another 'K' person.
Use pictures, photographs which illustrate an idea.
Go back to the laboratory or your lab manual.
Recall the experiments, field trip.

OUTPUT
To perform well in the examination

Write practice answers, paragraphs.
Role play the exam situation in your own room.

You want to experience the exam so that you can understand it. The ideas on this page are only valuable if they sound practical, real and relevant to you. You need to do things to understand.

Section III

Strategies for Enhancing Faculty/Instructional Development Programs

This section focuses on strategies that can be used in the faculty development process. The first two articles provide strategies to meet the needs of faculty/instructional developers themselves. Based on a workshop that was presented at the 1991 POD conference, "Hard Times Signal Challenges for Faculty Developers" by Elizabeth Fideler and Mary Deane Sorcinelli offers strategies to assist faculty/instructional developers during these times of fiscal constraints. In the second article, "Cosmopolitan Communities for Faculty Developers," Myrna Smith, Steve Golin, and Enid Friedman suggest that faculty/instructional developers need opportunities to network with other professionals with similar interests. As a result, they identify two programs in New Jersey that have been successful in providing outside reference groups for faculty/instructional developers.

Three articles in this section focus on strategies designed for instructors assisting each other in the process of faculty development. In "Breaking Barriers: Mentoring Junior Faculty Women for professional Development and Retention," Marie Wunsch and Linda Johnsrud discuss mentoring, a strategy used in an established program at the University of Hawaii, as a way for senior women faculty to assist junior women faculty. In "Conducting Effective Peer Observations," Barbara Millis, using experiences from a successful program at the University of Maryland University College, describes specific guidelines that instructors should consider as they work through the peer observation process. In "Effective Programming for TA Development," Lavon Gappa describes the use of teaching associates—experienced TAs hired specifically to provide assistance to less experienced TAs—as a strategy that has worked successfully in the TA training program at Florida State University.

The four remaining articles in this section focus on strategies that faculty/instructional developers can use in working with faculty. Kate Brinko, Richard Tiberius, Sally Atkins, and Judy Green in "Reflections on Teaching Courses in Faculty Development: Three Case Studies" reflect upon their experiences in teaching courses about faculty/instructional development and draw conclusions based on the commonalities in their experiences. Two of the articles in this section are about using workshops in faculty/instructional development. Emily Wadsworth discusses elements of a workshop format that she has used successfully in faculty workshops on cultural diversity. Michael Paulsen discusses the format he has used to present a workshop that relates the research on motivation and cognition to the process of designing and delivering lectures. The final strategy focuses on the use of teaching cases. In their article on "Using Cases About Teaching for Faculty Development," LuAnn Wilkerson and John Boehrer discuss a rationale for the use of cases in faculty/instructional development and provide guidelines for facilitating case discussions. This article serves as an important precursor for the specific cases that follow in Section IV.

Hard Times Signal Challenges for Faculty Developers

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As fiscal crises and cutbacks hit higher education, instructional/faculty developers need a broad array of methods for sustaining programs. Based on a forum at the 1991 POD Conference, this article identifies specific innovations and strategies that instructional/faculty developers are using to cope with and, in some cases, enrich faculty development programs during these difficult fiscal times.

Recent reports on higher education conclude that budget cuts are imposing the hardest times state colleges and universities have experienced since the Depression. The recession is taking its toll, and nearly everywhere in academe the outlook is described as bleak (Cage, 1992; Jacobson, 1991). For example, more than half of our states made mid-year budget reductions in 1991, and we can expect more in 1992. Even at private colleges, there are signs that the growth years of the '80s are over as student enrollments (and tuition money) drop by as much as 20 percent.

Ironically, despite shrinking resources, faculty development centers are increasingly called upon to cure long-term problems in undergraduate education—through the training of teaching assistants, multicultural and diversity education, teaching evaluation for both improvement and personnel decisions, efforts to elevate the status of teaching, the development of new faculty and chairs, and the revitalization of mid-career and senior faculty. Put simply, many of us find requests for services burgeoning while resources diminish.

How can undergraduate teaching and our teaching development centers best weather the hard times ahead? Which goals, activities and programs are most important for us to protect and nurture? In what creative ways can we continue to do at least as much with fewer resources? Can we view the faculty development glass as half full rather than half empty? Is there a positive spin to the increased demands on our centers? If so, in what ways can we sustain and indeed encourage the professional growth of our faculty and ourselves during changing times? These important questions beg to be explored.

Articulation of the Problems

At the 1991 POD Conference, we offered a structured forum for developers to articulate common problems and to share inspirational, pragmatic, and politically-aware strategies. The primary goal of this session was to provide time and space for faculty developers to talk about ways to cope with the demands on and cuts in higher education, particularly in their own programs. Participants included faculty, instructional, and organizational developers from both public and private colleges and universities.

The session was designed to tap the collective wisdom of colleagues who were already grappling with funding problems on their own campuses. We began with a brief overview of some of the key challenges and demands facing our own centers and faculty development programs in general. Based on the issues evoked, we asked participants to spend about ten minutes jotting down responses to the following: What is one of your top priorities in your faculty development program? How has it been affected by budget cuts? What have you done to cope with or turn that problem around?

Participants then worked in small groups to share both problems and innovative ideas and strategies to resolve funding dilemmas. Finally, a spokesperson from each group reported to the large group. We also distributed handouts with a series of concrete ideas for enriching faculty development in difficult fiscal times.

Creative Solutions

Participants quickly identified a top priority of their respective faculty development programs and indicated how it had been affected by budget cuts. As might be expected, more established programs appeared better able to withstand cutbacks than new ones. The denouement of a two-year effort to get a university in the Pacific Northwest to put some time and money into instructional development presented a typical discouraging scenario. In this case, the president and provost resigned at about the same time the state announced a budget cut. In the face of administrative and budgetary uncertainty, the aspiring faculty developer was left wondering how he could argue for support.

On a brighter note, other faculty developers were finding innovative solutions to budget problems. Under duress in hard times, they were summoning the flexibility and creativity required to protect key programs. For some developers, it was a matter of being willing to try an innovative idea or unorthodox approach to accomplish one's faculty development goals. For others, the use of tried-and-true strategies in an innovative way was the best response to fiscal austerity. Still other developers found it necessary to determine priorities in order to preserve some programs and let go of others.

Although it is difficult to make generalizations based on the experiences of individual campuses, we discovered that the coping strategies offered by practitioners sorted into five broad categories: 1) involving faculty in program initiatives; 2) seeking administrative leadership; 3) encouraging collegiality; 4) creating systems of "outside" support; and 5) providing rewards and recognition.

It should be noted that the notions embodied in this framework are not uniquely applicable to "bad times." These general strategies, we believe, are appropriate keys to success and survival in all times. In fact, our sense is that those who employ them in "good" times will be those who best weather the bad; those who merely resort to these strategies at the eleventh hour may be those whose programs are most negatively impacted. It is with this caveat that we offer some ideas for pulling through hard times in faculty development.

Involving Faculty in Program Initiatives

Studies of faculty development programs point to the importance of faculty involvement and ownership (Eble & McKeachie, 1985; Nelson & Siegel, 1980). Hard times seem to further encourage faculty developers to seek ways to foster faculty participation. For example, a large midwestern university imposed ten percent budget cuts on all units just as the professional and organizational development director was scheduled to begin a sabbatical leave. He and his staff decided to ask several faculty members to coordinate specific activities for the office (e.g., a senior professor coordinated the pre-tenure support group; a department head coordinated seminars and workshops for chairpersons). Selected faculty were named "Associates" to the office and received a modest $500.00 in professional development monies.

The notion that hard times can promote more faculty involvement is reinforced by the experiences of a faculty developer at a community college in New Jersey. A reduced budget prevented her from inviting outside consultants to lead workshops. As an alternative, the developer organized a "Faculty Day" that was designed and run by "in house" faculty. The morning portion of the program consisted of a series of twenty-minute mini-lectures by instructors who were trying new strategies in their classrooms. After a low-cost pizza lunch, a panel discussion chaired by faculty and administrators explored issues of common interest with the audience (e.g., dealing with a range of advising needs, with disruptive students). The faculty developer reported, "The faculty loved it . . . I'm still getting letters!"

Seeking Administrative Leadership

Although faculty involvement is crucial, so, too, is an administration that takes an active role in creating a positive environment for teaching (Eble & McKeachie, 1985; Nelson & Siegel, 1980; Sorcinelli, 1988). During hard times it is essential to communicate with academic administrators, not only to indicate the importance of professional development to the morale and sense of well-being of faculty members, but also to seek advice on teaching-related needs and concerns.

One director of a brand new faculty development center has begun her appointment with an explicit commitment to communicate with both faculty and administrators. Upon arrival, she launched an effort to meet with every faculty member, department chair, and dean on campus (some 140 individuals). Her goal was not only to heighten awareness of her center but also to seek faculty and administrators' advice on needs and solutions to problems.

Hard times may also encourage key administrators to seek the expertise and assistance of faculty development programs. For example, even though developers at a large southern university normally emphasize instructional support over evaluation, they are responding to a charge from faculty, deans, and the provost to lend their expertise to an initiative to improve the system for evaluating teaching for both improvement and personnel decisions. The provost has followed through on his promise to provide funding for planning and implementing the revisions. For this top administrator, it is clear that the challenging task of assessing and rewarding good teaching has become important enough to commit scarce monies. In funding this initiative, he made evident his overall support for faculty growth and change: "We must be careful in the hardest times that we do not stagnate. We have to make difficult choices about priorities, yes, but there are some things we must go forward with."

Encouraging Collegiality

A number of faculty development studies confirm that faculty members need support from one another, and many express the desire to talk with colleagues within and outside of their departments and disciplines (Boice, 1991; Sorcinelli, 1985). In hard times, it seems even more important to bring colleagues together in ways that will result in new ideas and increased enthusiasm for teaching.

Approaches to faculty development that involve faculty in examining some aspect of the teaching and learning process and then sharing insights and experiences can be both low-cost and impervious to budget cuts. For example, one faculty development center for which classroom research projects were a top priority suffered a fifty percent cut in faculty development lines. The developers were determined, however, and ultimately they pieced together support to protect their mini-grant program for classroom researchers. The project was saved because it had become a primary vehicle for providing faculty with opportunities to discuss their efforts to improve teaching and learning. Other faculty development programs report similar benefits from projects that focus on classroom research and related approaches, such as use of teaching cases and peer teaching consultation (Fideler, 1991).

Collegiality also made the difference for a midwestern faculty developer who, at no additional cost, reconfigured the orientation for new faculty so that it had a higher impact, meaning that it was more interesting, stimulating and interactive. Instead of a "parade" of speakers, the program included opportunities for building relationships among new and established faculty, as well as for more efficiently providing information about teaching, research, and campus resources (e.g., assigning each new faculty member to a senior colleague for the day, organizing round table discussions with key campus resource people).

Another developer, the sole professional appointment in her office, had just secured modest funding to begin designating one senior faculty member each year as "Senior Faculty Associate" to the center. This individual, a distinguished teacher and scholar, will assist the developer on mutually agreed upon projects. For example, the senior faculty associate might work with junior faculty members. He/she could offer a workshop, visit a class, review a manuscript, or simply share insights on teaching, learning, scholarship, or campus culture. Additionally, by working together, the developer and senior faculty associate will effect new patterns of collegiality within the center.

Creating Systems of "Outside" Support

Even before the recent cuts to higher education, many faculty development programs struggled with limited staff and funding (Sorcinelli, 1988). Hard times can further encourage the strategy of joining forces with others rather than working alone to accomplish program objectives. For several developers, creating systems of support with other campus groups and agencies, and even with other campuses, provided valuable stimulation, insights, and funding.

One successful strategy is to seek collaboration—on ideas, staff, resources, funds—with other campus agencies. For example, having already cut travel and grant money two times, the Center For Teaching Excellence at a Delaware institution remained determined to serve the largest number of faculty possible through a weekly workshop schedule, a newsletter, a videotaping service, and an orientation for teaching assistants. By requesting and securing partial funding from other offices (e.g., graduate school, international programs), the Center actually managed to expand the TA orientation to a second day.

Although transferring precious funds from one's faculty development center to other units seems unorthodox, the following example illustrates how such a move can have a positive outcome. Faced with the possibility of cuts to a faculty grants-for-teaching program, a faculty developer at a Canadian university decided to transfer the funds to division heads. Not surprisingly, deans and division heads became advocates for continuing the new model of "grants to departments." The developer also experimented with a strategy of "exporting" threatened functions to secure divisions. In this case, funds for workshops on teaching were vulnerable. Fortuitously, undergraduate student leaders approached the developer for assistance in proposing a conference on teaching. Cuts were averted when the administration endorsed the student initiative and the use of faculty development funds for this pivotal cooperative alliance.

Creating connections beyond one's campus is another successful strategy. For example, developers at two institutions were able to capitalize on the recent heightened interest in the quality of undergraduate education among state and regional officials (e.g., legislators, regents, boards of trustees). One developer positioned his office as "a resource for expertise and for policy and program development within our state system." This action was beginning to gain him visibility for and participation in his program. Similarly, a three-year old campus-wide Quality of Teaching Committee at a Canadian university was poised to hire an instructional development officer or to establish an office for faculty development, but funds were lacking.

Coincidentally, a major national report on Canadian universities was released, which lamented the lack of focus on teaching, promoted a broader definition of scholarship, and recommended the establishment of quality indicators. Wisely, the Quality of Teaching Committee plans to use this "window of opportunity" to bolster their proposal to initiate a faculty development program, and to link with the national agenda for improving college teaching.

Providing Rewards and Recognition

During hard times it is difficult for institutions to provide rewards, especially monetary rewards, for the achievements of faculty members. Yet several studies of faculty careers suggest that recognition by colleagues and administrators of a faculty member's contributions enhances satisfaction and counteracts academic stress (Sorcinelli, 1985; Seldin, 1987).

Faculty development programs would be wise to move a step beyond their formal programs to take notice of faculty achievements and acknowledge them. In one program, for example, the developer keeps a stack of "congratulation cards" and sends a note to faculty members who have developed new courses, completed textbooks, or provided conscientious service on the teaching excellence committee. Yet another program provides small grants—as little as $100.00 is appreciated—for "great ideas in teaching." Finally, one program at a university in the Northeast hosts a yearly dinner for over two hundred faculty members in "Celebration of Teaching." The dinner provides an occasion at which members of the campus community come together to support, indeed celebrate, the importance of teaching. The dinner has become a highly visible way for individuals—from the chancellor to distinguished teaching award winners to junior faculty teaching fellows—to affirm their commitment to teaching. Originally supported by an external grant, the dinner is now funded by the academic administration. If one were seeking a single strategy for faculty development during hard times, such acknowledgments might be a place to begin.

Conclusion

Given these past few years of budget cuts, developers could easily contemplate putting their hopes for the future growth of faculty, students, and their programs on hold. Faculty development programs are small vessels in the tidal changes that are rolling over higher education in these last hours of the century. But we have found encouraging evidence that many faculty developers are navigating the uncertain waters successfully. Providing more services with less support, protecting the status quo, and in some cases even nurturing programmatic growth, many faculty developers are exhibiting resourcefulness and adaptability. Some of the above descriptions illustrate judicious risk-taking and expansion, and some depict pragmatic paring down to essentials. And it is just possible that a forced reexamination of values and priorities will allow us to emerge stronger from these hard times.

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Cosmopolitan Communities for Faculty Developers

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The authors of this article describe the evolution of two programs in New Jersey that address the isolation of individual instructional/faculty developers by providing reference groups where leaders of instructional/faculty development programs can go to sustain themselves, associate with other experts and exchange ideas. The two programs, supported by the New Jersey Institute for Collegiate Teaching and Learning, are the regional coordinators' meetings for Partners in Learning and the Faculty Development Network.

Faculty development officers could be called the "Woody Allens" of the academic world—isolated, disempowered figures, serving outside of the chain of command. Like college teachers, they perform their function essentially alone, and like college teachers, they need support, not just financial, but the same kind of support they offer faculty. As Gouldner (1957) points out, persons outside an organizational power structure have a stronger need to belong to outer reference groups, to have places they can go to talk about their specialized roles and exchange ideas with persons in comparable positions. When they do participate in outside reference groups, they become "cosmopolitans" as opposed to "locals."

However, because faculty development is a relatively new field, an outer reference group did not exist before the formation of POD, and because of budget constraints, many faculty developers are unable to attend the annual POD or other professional conferences. Of those who do attend POD conferences, many cannot sustain themselves without a built-in reference group, a place to go, away from their own campuses—to associate with other experts, to exchange ideas, to become truly cosmopolitan.

Two programs in New Jersey have succeeded in addressing these issues of isolation by providing support for leaders of faculty development programs: the regional coordinators' meetings for Partners in Learning (formerly the New Jersey Master Faculty Program) and the Faculty Development Network.

Partners in Learning Coordinators' Meetings

The coordinators' meetings began as problem-solving sessions for faculty coordinators who were initiating the Partners in Learning Program on their campuses. The coordinators, appointed by their own campus administrators, met with the state-wide director to discuss the challenges of initiating the Partners in Learning Program on a variety of campuses in the state.

Partners in Learning Program

Partners in Learning involves pairs of faculty working together for a semester or even a year to observe one another's classes and interview students. In addition, the on-campus participants meet together several times a semester to discuss their experiences (For more details on the Program, see Smith & LaCelle-Peterson, 1991; Golin, 1990; and Katz & Henry, 1988).

To sustain a program on a campus, one or two coordinators, assist in forming faculty pairs, call campus meetings, represent the program to administration, and finally, and most importantly for this article, attend regional meetings called by the director of the state-wide Program.

History and Development of the Coordinators' Meetings

Joseph Katz, the founder of the New Jersey Master Faculty Program, organized four-hour coordinator meetings. As noted above, these meetings began as problem-solving sessions associated with beginning programs on campuses. Katz, however, hoped they would become educational "think tanks." Because of Katz's premature death, only the original group of coordinators met with him, and they did not fully participate in realizing his vision of the meetings.

Katz encouraged those original coordinators, including Myrna Smith and Steve Golin (co-authors of this article), to be model participants, as well as campus coordinators. Because the group members had new experiences to report and because the monthly meetings were so long, coordinators began telling stories about the student interviews and classroom observations. Influenced by Katz's openness to experience and skills of analysis, the group examined the situations from all angles. These stories became the primary mode of "discovering" principles of teaching and learning. In that way the meetings encouraged thinking—albeit, perhaps, not at "think tank" level.

Steve Golin, the second program director, formed two more groups of coordinators. The three groups met separately, but each evolved in the direction of becoming a kind of support group. In addition to reflecting on the experiences of interviewing and observing, the coordinators began to comment on the experience of being with each other. Coordinators found the state-wide meetings more nourishing than the campus meetings of participants, which they conducted.

Gathering off campus, away from their own campus power structures, with people who were not part of their particular campus culture, they experienced a sense of freedom and trust. Discussions became more personal. Coordinators volunteered genuine dilemmas they were encountering with students and colleagues and asked for feedback and help. Feeling more accepted, they began to listen better to one another. The line between the personal and the professional became blurred.

One of the surprises in Rice and Cheldelin's (1990) external program evaluation was how much the coordinators valued their meetings as ongoing opportunities for renewal. The evaluators also pointed out, however, that faculty do not necessarily have to learn everything "through practice and reflection" (p. 16). A body of knowledge about student learning already exists and faculty should be encouraged to learn from it. They wrote:

> As evaluators, we are confident that the program could be significantly enriched by the introduction of the intellectually challenging work of William Perry and David Kolb early on. Valuable faculty time is wasted in proceeding as if this substantial knowledge base does not exist. (p. 17)

From that point on, Golin began introducing outside readings, although the emphasis on the meetings was still the experience of the coordinators.

By the fourth year of the Program,[1] support given to coordinators in the form of released time from teaching was withdrawn by some campuses. To make meetings more manageable, Myrna Smith, the third program director, introduced several changes: she reconfigured the coordinator groups according to geography, with meeting time reduced from four to three hours. New campuses joined the project in all regions of the state, making all three meetings a mixture of experienced and new coordinators.

Of the coordinators who retained their positions, some had been serving since the very beginning, others for two years. Many of those coordinators were no longer participants, and because they were not participants, they no longer had raw stories from student interviews or from classroom observations. Even some of the new coordinators saw themselves as administrators of, rather than participants in, the program. In short, the nature of the meetings had to change.

The emphasis of the meetings shifted from the primary experience of the group to the body of knowledge on teaching and learning. Readings included *The Harvard Assessment Seminars* (Light, 1990); selections from Perry (1970); Kolb (1984); and Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986). In addition, columns from *The Teaching Professor*, etc., were discussed. Experts on such subjects as critical thinking and learning styles addressed the groups. Coordinators themselves made presentations on such topics as using groups and designing student assignments to develop critical thinking skills and to promote intellectual growth. As one coordinator noted, "The meetings were like taking a graduate class in teaching and learning."

One of the outcomes of making the meetings more theoretical and less experiential was that coordinators had ideas to take back to their campuses for the Partners in Learning meetings or for their entire faculty. Another outcome was that the groups became less personal: group members no longer hurried to meetings to share stories about their students or their children.

Katz and Henry (1988, p. 7) point out "that learning is an intensely emotional experience," so as the groups became more traditionally academic, they also may have become less supportive of change in the participants. However, coordinators, some of whom receive no measurable reward from their campuses (some do receive released time from teaching), come to the meetings, usually prepared to discuss the announced topic. Their regular attendance indicates that these meetings offer something that they do not get on their own campuses: meeting with faculty, not only from different campuses, but from different types of campuses, and discussing possible solutions to the challenges of improving teaching.

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[1] The New Jersey Master Faculty Program was contracted to the Woodrow Wilson National Fellowship Foundation by the New Jersey Department of Higher Education from 1987 to 1990. The Program was moved to the New Jersey Institute for Collegiate Teaching and Learning (NJICTL) on July 1, 1990. NJICTL, which also supports the Faculty Development Network, was established in 1989 by the New Jersey Department of Higher Education at Seton Hall University for the purpose of supporting teaching and learning at all New Jersey colleges and universities, two and four year, both public and private.

Faculty Development Network

The Faculty Development Network (FDN) is a collegiate group comprised of: 1) faculty development leaders who hold formal positions in their institutions; 2) faculty interested in specific faculty development projects, such as international and writing-across-the curriculum projects; and 3) faculty involved in innovation. FDN holds one annual meeting. Two-and four-year colleges, both public and private, as well as research universities participate.

History and Evolution of FDN

In 1986 New Jersey's Department of Higher Education issued a report, *Supporting and Strengthening the College Faculty* (Marcus, 1986), calling for a state-wide focus on faculty development. The report indicated that the pervasive feelings among college faculty were of "lost mobility, diminished enthusiasm, eroded compensation, conflicted demands and constraining conditions"; therefore, the state would initiate a "comprehensive, multifaceted program . . . designed to support college faculty in their quest for excellence" (p. 1).

The program outlined as a response to this condition was expensive and comprehensive; however, it did spur some campus faculty development leaders to suggest a simpler program, one that provided opportunities to get acquainted, to exchange ideas informally, and to learn from one another's expertise. The idea gained interest, and The Faculty Development Network was born.

However, FDN almost did not survive the first state-wide meeting, which featured formal presentations by nationally-known speakers. The interactive, "networking" part of the program consisted of a questionnaire distributed during the last fifteen minutes of the program. There was no enthusiasm for another meeting.

In 1989, The State Department of Higher Education established the New Jersey Institute for Collegiate Teaching and Learning to centralize and coordinate faculty development efforts in higher education in New Jersey.

Working with campus faculty development leaders was a logical part of the Institute's mission. Co-author of this article, Enid Friedman, was asked to develop an alternative proposal for state-wide networking. A committee of campus faculty development coordinators, chaired by Friedman, consulted with POD members across the country and then designed a one-day annual conference.

The purpose was to initiate an annual state-wide meeting—low-key in image and low-cost to survive budget reversals—featuring informal activities for campus faculty development leaders. To ensure representation from a variety of institutions, local leaders would plan and participate in the program. Networking would occur naturally, as leaders began to know and trust one another.

The Annual Meeting

The formal "network" structure is simple, low-cost, and easy to orchestrate: only one annual meeting. The format consists of fifteen to twenty Campus Action Project (CAP) presentations in the morning. The twenty-minute concurrent sessions give faculty development leaders an opportunity to showcase successful faculty development activities from their campuses. A formal sit-down luncheon and alternative interactive workshops in the afternoon facilitate communication and the exchange of ideas.

The program has sometimes included a luncheon speaker; however, that presentation detracts from the important business of the day—communication among the faculty development leaders. The attendance over three years has grown from sixty to one hundred, with more campuses becoming involved. But the real evolution is ongoing: a growing connectedness among faculty development leaders throughout the state.

Networking

Because the faculty developers know each other, some contact each other during the course of the year. The ideas heard at the annual meeting appear on other campuses. For example, the College of St. Elizabeth began a series of lunch-time dialogues on cultural diversity modeled after those held at Jersey City State College and William Paterson College.

Essex County College established a Faculty Recognition Committee to send letters of thanks and token gifts to deserving faculty as a result of a CAP presentation by Brookdale Community College. Essex also produced its first handbook for part-time faculty, modeled after Burlington County College's. Georgian Court introduced the one-minute paper after the concept was presented in an interactive session led by the faculty development leader from Monmouth college.

Friedman also adapted the FDN meeting format for the first college-wide Faculty Day at Essex County College (this format has become a state-wide meeting model), using the CAP scheduling for morning presentations about classroom innovations, followed by an informal lunch and afternoon alternative workshops. She expected no more than sixty-five attendees, but one-hundred-and-twenty faculty, administrators, and adjuncts attended and participated with enthusiasm. The cost: the price of a few dozen pizzas.

Conclusion

The success of both the Partners in Learning coordinators' meetings and the Faculty Development Network, judged by attendance and survival, indicates that they satisfy the need for more cosmopolitan communities. In their evaluation of the (now) Partners in Learning, Rice and Cheldelin (1989) note that the program brings this dimension to teaching: "The advantage that involvement in research brings to faculty is that it keeps them in contact with a group of peers beyond their own campus—a cosmopolitan community" (p. 23). The interviews with campus coordinators conducted by Rice and Cheldelin revealed the appreciation they had for "having a place to talk about teaching with faculty from campuses across the state" (p. 23). The faculty development leader, often running a one-person operation, also needs the cosmopolitan dimension that the Faculty Development Network provides.

The success of both the Partners in Learning coordinators' meetings and the Faculty Development Network also indicates that there are relatively simple and inexpensive ways to provide outside reference groups for faculty developers. What faculty developers respond to is the chance to exchange ideas and experiences with colleagues from other institutions. In learning from each other, faculty developers develop themselves. What POD does nationally, we all can do locally.

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Breaking Barriers: Mentoring Junior Faculty Women for Professional Development and Retention

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This paper describes a successful two-year pilot program on mentoring new junior faculty women. The program emphasizes individual professional development and retention issues and includes colleague-pairing, mentor training, the use of a mentoring agreement, and a multi-leveled series of development workshops, seminars, and networking activities. The assessment and research component includes a needs assessment, pre-and post-participation perception studies, assessment interviews, and a proposed longitudinal study of mentees from entrance to tenure.

A decade ago a major problem facing women planning academic careers was lack of full access to graduate programs and then to faculty positions in colleges and universities. In the student ranks, women are now the majority of undergraduate students in higher education, and there is a significant increase in women earning doctorates in a broader number of fields. In the faculty ranks, national data project a shortage of qualified faculty for the positions that will be available in colleges and universities in the late 1990's (Bowen & Schuster, 1986; El-Khawas, 1989). The major challenge for higher education, then, will be the full utilization of women prepared to assume academic positions. Already there is a noticeable increase in institutional programs to recruit, compensate, retain, and tenure new faculty.

Efforts to retain are critical because, as findings indicate, women are more likely than their male peers to leave academic institutions prior to tenure decisions (Finkelstein, 1984; Johnsrud & Atwater, 1991a; Lovano-Kerr, & Fuchs, 1983; Menges & Exum, 1983). Moreover, when competitive recruitment offers are made to junior faculty to leave their current positions, evidence from at least one institution indicates that males, more often than women, receive counter offers in salary and benefits to stay at their home institutions (Arizona Board of Regents, 1991). Such patterns of attrition and retention must be reversed if faculty women are to achieve parity in representation.

Excluding the salary issue, which is the most frequently cited difference for men and women across all ranks (Leatherman, 1991, p. A14), the major hindrance to women's success seems to be the lack of a supportive, even hospitable, climate. Faculty women report greater intellectual and social isolation (Johnsrud & Atwater, 1991a; Yoder, 1985). They are more likely to have their scholarship discredited (Kritek, 1984), although women publish as much as their male peers in refereed journals (Astin, Korn, & Dey, 1991). Faculty women have greater difficulty obtaining resources to support scholarly activities required for tenure and promotion, such as professional travel funds, research monies, equipment for laboratories and released time for research activities (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1989; Finkelstein, 1984). Female assistant professors often have heavier teaching loads, more students in large undergraduate classes, and more departmental committee assignments. Although women are good campus citizens, such citizenship is less valued for advancement than traditional research and publication (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1990). Over 50% of women in public universities (but no men) report subtle discrimination as a source of job stress. Only 33% of the women conclude that they still want to be college professors as opposed to 43% of the men (Astin, Korn, & Dey, 1991).

Furthermore, scholarship on women's careers provides evidence that success often depends not only on one's knowledge but on one's contacts, not only on hard work but on the ability to self-promote, and not only on technical competence but on the confidence to pursue the highest aspirations. Adelman (1991) reports on an extensive national longitudinal study of the careers and labor market experiences of the high school class of 1972 (N=22,652) to the age of thirty-two. Women's achievements are superior to those of men (SAT scores, GPA, college grades, number of years of training, satisfaction with education). The paradox is that their rewards, status and advancement in the labor market are thin when compared to men. A notable observation is that women come to careers determined to succeed on the basis of *what* they know, not *whom* they know. Even though this determination may contribute to their productivity, they often get stuck or encapsulated in ways that hinder their effectiveness and advancement. Similarly, success in the academic marketplace requires a high level of educational attainment, but moving through the system of rewards and status requires knowing colleagues who can provide the guidance, support, and astute insight into the political processes of the institution.

Scholars and researchers flourish more rapidly if they receive clear expectations about success and encouragement that endorses intellectual strengths and career commitments (Astin & Leland,1991). In academe, however, males have more natural access to this kind of collegial guidance than females. McClosky (1991) clarifies the dilemma of what has become known as the "invisible college." Highly entrenched in the sciences, but developing increasingly in other disciplines, is the network of established experts who come to govern their disciplines by influencing hiring, publications, and promotions beyond the power of the campus colleagues. Few faculty are tenured without "outside evaluators" of their professional work. Women, as yet, do not constitute a strong part of this network. However, their work will likely be judged by the network if their own colleagues value what is being promulgated by "the invisibles."

When women faculty are also members of an ethnic minority, their opportunities for access to this network through informal means is even more limited (Hall & Sandler, 1983). Clearly, retaining faculty women and developing an equitable institutional climate and support system are closely linked. Mentoring is an emergent strategy to meet the needs of both individual faculty development and the redirection of the institutional support system.

Mentoring as a Retention Strategy

Like its origins in mythology, *mentoring* has elusive definitions and functions. Mentor in *The Odyssey*, was the patron, advisor, guide, role model, teacher, and inspirer of the young Prince Telemachus' rites of passage into Greek manhood; it may be instructive to remember that Mentor was a disguise of Athena, the goddess of wisdom. Can we then say that mentoring is a wise way of imparting knowledge, a wise way of using the wisdom of tradition, and a wise way of using the experiences of established colleagues on behalf of those gaining passage into academe? One wonders about the outcome of Athena's mentoring had she chosen, instead, the Princess Nausica to develop.

Although mentoring is not new, either in the corporate sector to develop professionals or in academe to retain students, few formal programs for mentoring junior academics have been developed and assessed. No doubt a good deal of informal helping among faculty does occur, but to be effective in the long-term, mentoring cannot be viewed as a peripheral or compensatory program for women only. Rather it must be viewed as a strategy for changes in the structure and climate of the institution.

The following discussion highlights a successful two-year pilot program at the University of Hawaii for systematic mentoring of junior faculty women. The goals of the program are to develop the academic careers of junior faculty women and to ensure institutional change through the retention of women faculty. The activities of the program are multi-leveled to meet the complex interests and needs of women in a variety of disciplines during their early years at the university.

The Mentoring Program at the University of Hawaii

Mentoring programs have the highest chance for impact if they are created in response to needs identified by the participants and congruent with the goals of the institution. Studies gathering data on the barriers to the advancement of women or on the climate for women are not routine on most campuses, but are usually conducted when gender, equity, climate, and retention issues for women become vocalized concerns. (In the past five years, for example, the University of Maryland, University of Wisconsin, Ohio State University, University of Kentucky, and University of Arizona, among others, have released major reports). Academics rarely consider credible anecdotal material on women's experiences, unless it is documented by traditional research methods. Grounding a mentoring program in data provides information not only for planning and implementation of a program but also for establishing a mechanism for clear assessment of outcomes. Thus, the mentoring program at the University of Hawaii began with considerable attention to available data as well as a needs assessment.

Data Gathering and Analysis

A University of Hawaii study on *Barriers to Retention and Tenure: The Experiences of Faculty Cohorts, 1982-88* (Johnsrud & Atwater, 1991a) informed the evolution of the mentoring program. The study included 325 faculty who entered tenure track positions, including 93 who left the institution, 127 who were still probationers, and 105 who had received tenure. Results indicated that women experienced their academic careers differently than did their male peers. Women in the study left their tenure track positions at a rate significantly higher than men (women comprised 34.1% of the population, but 45.2% of the leavers). The common threads of women's experience did not differ markedly from those reported in other recent national studies (Astin, Korn & Dey, 1991; Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1989). Women faculty reported greater lack of institutional resources and support, isolation, tenure pressures, workload imbalance, stressful relations with colleagues and department chairs, and discrimination. The expressed need for mentoring was widespread.

In addition to the review of national and institutional data on the professional development needs of junior faculty women, additional planning studies provided insights for the program. A needs assessment was conducted during the summer with all senior faculty women (tenured associate and full professors) and with all probationary women (assistant professors), and with a cohort of new women entering the university in Fall, 1990. Junior women identified a variety of interests in the areas of career planning, teaching development, research support, dual career issues, orientation to a multicultural campus, and personal adjustment issues. Senior women identified areas in which they had experience solving problems and areas in which they had expertise or interest in mentoring. Respondents could also include lifestyle issues to facilitate colleague matching.

At the initiation of the program, another survey was conducted on the perceptions of the women in the colleague-pairing aspect of the program. The purpose was to explore empirically the perceptions of senior and junior women faculty regarding the barriers to success experienced in the early academic career. A factor analysis of the responses of twenty-two pairs was used to examine the differences between senior and junior women (Johnsrud & Wunsch, 1991a). At the end of the first year, a follow-up survey explored the differences before and after participation in the program. Results were used to structure appropriate activities for faculty women to help themselves and one another succeed in an academic setting (Johnsrud & Wunsch, 1991b).

Program Placement and Resources

The mentoring program was placed within the university's Office of Faculty Development and Academic Support. Because that office is charged with emphasizing development programs for all new faculty (new faculty orientation, teaching development seminars, workshops on institutional resources, travel monies, and curriculum development grants) for purposes of retention as well as professional growth, the mentoring program for junior women faculty was a natural addition. Placing responsibility for the program with a senior administrator in an established program for serving faculty signalled that mentoring is not an expedient add-on in times of crisis, but part of an integrated effort to retain new faculty. The program was named one of the President's initiatives, ensuring further visibility and resources, and was supported by an initial $10,000 grant to cover staff support, materials, and small stipends for the mentors. The continuation of the program is now enhanced by its being included in crucial planning documents such as the campus academic development plan and the affirmative action plan and in budget documents.

Program Characteristics

Within this program, mentoring is considered to be a long-range career development strategy, so that all activities are directed toward fostering career growth from the time a woman faculty member enters the institution through tenure and promotion. The first year mentoring activities encourage the probationary woman to understand the academic culture of the campus, to identify and use resources to support teaching and research activities, to develop networks of senior and junior colleagues to facilitate professional work, and to learn the particular social and political dynamics of the home department. At this time only senior faculty women have been asked to serve as mentors on the assumption that they can more effectively facilitate the networking of women faculty, provide role models for successful careers, and convey the lessons of the "survivors'" experiences. The program is characterized by an emphasis on three main areas.

1. Entry level survival needs in the institution. Although each academic department has a particular socio-political culture with its own implicit and explicit policies, procedures, and interpersonal expectations, the university as a whole also has culture that will affect the academic career. New faculty require access to this information to function as accepted peers and professionals. Mentors can provide institutional information on services, benefits, intramural monies for teaching, travel, or research, act as advocates for the newcomers, and help them to integrate into the scholarly community of the institution. For this reason, newcomers are paired with a mentor from outside the home department, but in a cognate discipline or from the same college, who has extensive knowledge of the campus routines and rituals.

2. Career development and advancement needs. As a faculty member progresses through the initial career stages, there are more particular skills, bodies of knowledge, and contributions expected to attain tenure and promotion. In the press of first year orientation and adjustment, new faculty members seldom see themselves planning an academic career. Yet, most institutions almost immediately require some assessment for contract renewal, and the results begin to affect retention decisions on each side. Mentors must make a special point of advising mentees of the importance of understanding review criteria and the evaluation process early in the first year. Data such as student and peer evaluations, research proposals, and letters of support need to be acquired early for constructing the history of achievement necessary for the tenure dossier later.

*3. **Socio-psychological needs.*** All faculty should expect a campus climate that offers full collegiality and respect for individuality. Since "the faculty" is neither a collective entity nor a monolithic group, each individual requires a balance of competencies to deal with colleague communication and interactions. The intrinsic motivators and rewards most appealing to faculty are, in great measure, those of affiliation, competence, mutual respect and peer recognition, and support (Bowen & Schuster, 1986). Multiple studies of women's experiences (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1990; Finkelstein, 1984; Kritek, 1984) conclude, however, that such rewards are not easily attained by women faculty. Mentors can serve as guides and models in helping to develop the skills needed to cope with less-than-congenial relationships, as well as in suggesting ways to influence the climate of the department so that women are included and respected as colleagues.

Program Activities

In the initial years of the program, colleagues were paired by the program advisory committee on the basis of information supplied about career needs in the initial assessment survey. If voluntary data were included on lifestyle issues, every attempt was made to match women with similar backgrounds and family situations (e. g., dual career couples or mothers of small children). All mentors were senior, tenured women faculty, and each was from a related discipline outside the mentees' home department. Women were matched on the assumption that the first phase of mentoring for those new to the institution involved orientation to the general culture of the university, to available resources for professional development, to available services on the campus and in the community, to a network of other new women in various disciplines, and to a group of experienced women faculty. Pairing outside the home department provided more neutral advisors while the new faculty members were gaining insight into the politics and practices of the department. Outside mentors were often able to be objective advocates for the new women with senior colleagues or the department chair in a way that might not have been possible by women within the department.

During the first year there were thirty-four colleague pairs from twenty-seven different departments. Of these pairs, twenty-nine mentees were in their initial year of hire and the other five were in their second or third year. An exception was made for the five because they were the only women in their departments. Only two pairs chose not to continue in the program; one pair with initial difficulties was successfully reassigned. Particular attention was given to pairing new women who were the first or only females in their departments. Two such women in the natural sciences had two mentors to ensure additional advice on grant and research development, matters of particular concern in the sciences. Mentees were also encouraged to identify other mentors, male or female, within their own departments to work on more specific aspects of colleague relations and expectations in the department.

In the second year another eighteen pairs were added. Simultaneously, mentoring groups were set up to accommodate women faculty whose primary responsibilities were other than teaching and research (i. e., librarians, student support specialists, non-tenure track foreign language instructors). In this model, mentors and mentees worked together in groups and evolved a general agreement on the areas in which they wished to focus their discussions and activities.

Mentor training and meetings. A number of mentors expressed concern about their ability to carry on a mentoring relationship and about the elusiveness of the process itself. Many had not had mentors themselves or had never engaged in mentoring activities. Others were uneasy about structuring a process that they felt was personal and informal. Thus, mentors agreed to meet once a month as a group with the program coordinator to discuss the mentoring process, to identify resources or persons to support their mentees, and to identify common professional or institutional problems encountered by new faculty. The program coordinator contributed articles and research on mentoring as well as information on institutional resources that supported mentoring. During the meetings a mentor could introduce a "critical incident" and ask for suggestions from other mentors or report on a positive helping activity. An assessment of the first year program (survey and interviews) showed that the mentors thought that structure helped considerably to focus the activities. The mentors reported benefiting from interaction with other senior colleagues, some of whom had not met before the program (Johnsrud & Atwater, 1991b).

Mentee group meetings. The mentees also met once a month as a group with the program coordinator to analyze their own experiences, to develop personal contacts and professional relationships within the cohort, to identify common problems, and to detail actual strategies used to address critical issues. Close association with a peer cohort proved very productive for confirming the common adjustment patterns of new faculty and for easing some of the isolation and stress of "going it alone" as the newcomer. Some groups formed research and writing collaborations, and some single women planned social activities. In the second year, a group of minority women in the program formed a focus group to meet separately on occasion to discuss what they believed to be unique about their experiences.

The mentoring agreement. Each colleague pair agreed to complete a written agreement whereby they detailed how often they would meet and what specific activities they would pursue based on the interests and needs of the mentee. The written agreement was designed to be a tool for two persons who did not know one another to begin the process of developing a working relationship quickly. Discussing specific professional development issues forced the junior colleague to conceptualize and detail her own career needs and to identify strategies to address those needs. Retention decisions on the part of junior faculty women depended on how quickly they were able to progress toward their own goals. Focus on specific goals allowed for both immediate and long range accomplishment, particularly in learning to negotiate the system. The only requirement was that a plan be developed by mutual agreement of the pair; otherwise they were free to make individual decisions on time commitments and the number and kinds of activities they choose.

The agreements varied considerably in form, ranging from a detailed weekly work log to a creative "fable" about the elements of developing a female academic. What may have appeared to be a rigid requirement proved to be as diverse and rich as the participants themselves. Those who established clear objectives and maintained the time commitment to meet regularly reported the most productive and personally satisfying experiences. Half the group met at least once a month, and the other half met about twice a month. Over half also kept in touch by telephone and electronic mail or met to participate in a professional or social activity in addition to their mentoring meeting. An analysis of the mentoring agreements proved invaluable in identifying common areas of concern and experience that cut across the participants. A list of activities and strategies shared with those coming into the program the second year served as a quick start for their plans.

Monthly seminars on career development. Topics of common interest that could be handled more effectively in a group format became the basis for two-hour seminars presented by individual experts or panels of women faculty. The advantage of this open format was that all women on campus could be invited, not only those in the mentoring program. Some topics addressed included using academic writing groups, planning for tenure from the first year, managing time and balancing priorities, developing a scholarly agenda, and securing intramural funds for research, travel, and career development. Mentors frequently came to these sessions with the mentees, thus providing a richer mix of expertise to supplement that of the presenters.

Informal social activities. Because many junior faculty report social and intellectual isolation and difficulty meeting faculty from other departments, a series of informal social events were offered to women faculty. There was a luncheon in an executive dining room on campus to open the year's program, followed by monthly brown bag lunches open to all faculty women. These activities provided opportunities for the women to develop relationships on a more personal basis and in a relaxed environment. In the planning stage are a series of lunches on site in different departments, laboratories, and research areas to acquaint participants with the range of work in which women faculty are involved on a large, decentralized campus.

Evaluation. If personal and organizational change is a goal, a program must be prepared to supply evidence of impact. Therefore, an evaluation for the program was conducted at the end of the first year. An open-ended interview guide was developed to elicit comments about each individual's experience in the mentor-mentee relationship and the program in general, including suggestions for change. One-to-one interviews were audio-taped for 51 of the women who participated in the first year of the program. Analysis of the transcribed interviews indicated that the support for the mentoring program by all participants interviewed was overwhelmingly positive. Even in the few cases in which the individuals had less than satisfactory personal relationships with their particular mentor or mentee, they expressed strong support for the program as a whole.

Relationships were seen as most helpful in the areas of departmental and institutional politics, and the tenure process. Generally, respondents perceived that relationships worked well when the mentor served as an active listener to facilitate the mentee's own problem solving abilities, offered emotional support and encouragement in professional and personal matters, and suggested strategies for dealing with department relations and the tenure clock. Specifically, mentors whose discipline or college was sufficiently distant from that of their mentee were able to provide a new perspective of institutional politics and procedures that helped extend the mentee's view and understanding of the institution. The mentoring relationship was also seen as helpful in dealing with problematic features of the tenure clock, particularly in the balancing of teaching, research, and service.

Because the assumption in these pairings was that the mentor was helping the mentee, the most successful relationships resulted when the mentor actively took the initiative in making contact. The typical mentee hesitated about initiating contact because she perceived her mentor to be overworked and thus did not want to be a burden.

Some notes of caution were expressed. First, concern was voiced that the program not become too institutionalized or bureaucratic. Participants felt that the nature of mentoring is so personal and idiosyncratic that the organized program should be loosely structured. Second, it was felt that critical attention must be paid to the matching of senior and junior women. It appears that matches too close (within the same department) or too distant (completely unrelated disciplines) are not as successful as matches in which the individuals have some degree of intellectual and/or personal overlap of interests. Finally, because the community of women faculty is relatively small, respondents raised the issue of confidentiality as an area of concern.

The assessment of the first year of the mentoring program proved to be useful for immediate program planning and training as well for the long-term development of the program. A long-range assessment mechanism will consist of a longitudinal study of the cohorts as they proceed from entrance into the university through the completion of the tenure process. A series of individual interviews will be conducted to identify changes in the needs and perceptions of participants as they move through the tenure process.

Conclusion

Concern about the recruitment and retention of women faculty must be transformed into action. A combination of strategies must be brought to bear to reach the level of success envisioned by enlightened colleges and universities. Progress requires serious affirmative action efforts to enhance recruitment as well as campus programs that show institutional support for new faculty and a commitment to their professional development. A successful mentoring program that promises information about advancing within the institution and provides a supportive network of senior colleagues can be part of an effective recruitment package. Women faculty who experience immediate attention to their adjustment and professional growth are more likely to want to stay after they are hired. To be effective, a mentoring program must meet the needs of individual faculty women, but also be a part of the general support system. A effective program has visibility, administrative support, and just enough structure to facilitate worthwhile activities and to motivate participants to spend valuable time with one another. An effective program needs sufficient data to facilitate program planning and assessment, to justify its continuation, and to provide evidence that it can, even in the short run, accomplish the goals of developing and retaining qualified faculty women.

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Conducting Effective Peer Classroom Observations

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Peer classroom observations—if conducted systematically, professionally, and collegially—can provide significant documentation of what occurs in a university classroom. Most important, the collegial dialogues they engender also serve as catalysts for teaching enhancement. This article discusses some of the issues and options associated with classroom observations and provides experience-based guidelines for conducting them.

Classroom observations can serve both summative and formative purposes. Ideally, of course, well-conducted observations will lead to reflective changes in teaching. Unless the observations are part of a carefully conceived, systematic process, however, there are a number of potential barriers that can prevent their success. A major barrier to peer observations, as Seldin (1980) notes, is that faculty are sometimes reluctant to open their classrooms to visitors. In addition, Eison (1988) suggests that some faculty question the reliability of observations because of: 1) vague, general impressions growing from imprecise definitions of good teaching; 2) the disruptive influence of the observation itself; 3) biases, prompted by observers' own teaching behavior or values; and 4) observer leniency or, conversely, observer negativity. He notes that faculty also raise concerns about the effect of peer ratings on departmental productivity and about their value when matched with the day-to-day observations of students. To this list of concerns, one could also add Centra's (1979) comment that "Little improvement comes from occasional class observation by colleagues or administrators who do not know what to look for or who may not be particularly effective teachers themselves" (p. 84).

Despite these reservations, observations remain a powerful way to document teaching activities and to improve teaching performance. Edgerton (1992) encourages faculty to lay aside their reservations and focus on the "greater goal":

> There are many arguments against classroom visitation by peers, including much evidence that peers are not reliable judges of the teaching performance of their colleagues. But to be deterred by this evidence would be to accept a view that is ultimately demeaning of teaching—the view that faculty peers are not necessary judges of the quality of teaching. It would be far better, we believe, to press ahead with the search for more effective methods of peer review. (p. 4)

The Case for Peer Classroom Observations

Edgerton (1991) speaks eloquently of a larger vision of teaching, one that regards teaching as a "situated act" directly connected to the subjects being taught. Such a vision should result in ongoing, sustained conversations about teaching. Teaching is dramatically visible in college and university classrooms where faculty, students, the subject matter, and the environment "connect," much as a play unfolds on opening night. Often the performance/interaction has been preceded by careful planning and preparation; ideally, it also should be followed by analysis, review, and reflection that will shape further performances.

There are a number of reasons why peer classroom observations are valuable for providing input about teaching. Part of the case in favor of observations lies in their potential for getting instructors to be reflective about their instruction and to discuss it with others. The observations provide needed opportunities for reflection, particularly when multiple visits provide input for an ongoing program of development. The process prompts instructors to think about what they do and about strategies for doing it better, thus leading, one hopes, to subsequent teaching improvements. In addition, classroom observations build on the known positive results of one-to-one consultation to effect positive changes (Brinko, 1990; Erickson & Erickson, 1979; Katz & Henry, 1988; Menges & Brinko, 1986; Mortensen, 1982; Stevens & Aleamoni, 1985; Wilson, 1986). Faculty, in consultation with their visitors, can plan specific changes, and then, through follow-up observations, receive feedback about the effectiveness of the new classroom practices. Observations therefore encourage faculty members to communicate openly about their teaching, fostering the "culture of teaching" promoted by the American Association of Higher Education's Teaching Initiative. Menges (1987) emphasizes that faculty enjoy reciprocal consultation: "Participants report high satisfaction, more interaction with other faculty members, increased motivation, and renewed interest in teaching" (p. 91). Edgerton (1989) regards such exchanges as "collegial dialogues" and recommends that "we move to a culture in which peer review of teaching is as common as peer review of research" (p 8).

The information provided through classroom observations can be particularly useful. Educators advocate multiple sources for teaching improvement or for teaching evaluation, and classroom observations provide a source of input that can be balanced against some of the more common forms of instructional feedback such as student evaluations. Working through the observation process with a colleague who is familiar with the discipline or with academia in general can provide insights unavailable from other major sources. As Evertson and Holley (1981) assert: "Classroom observation gives us a view of the climate, rapport, interaction, and functioning of the classroom available from no other source" (p. 90). Visits are particularly valuable for those relatively new to teaching. Menges (1991) suggests that "In a busy classroom, the teacher is hardly an objective or comprehensive observer. New teachers especially feel overloaded and have nowhere to store everything they perceive" (p. 29). Furthermore, when the visitor approaches the observation in an objective, professional manner, the information obtained can be documented for future use. Particularly when this documentation is based on multiple classroom visits, it can be useful not only for instructional improvement of those involved but also for promotion and tenure reviews, for inclusion in teaching portfolios, or for market viability, particularly for faculty changing positions or for teaching assistants facing their first job search.

Conducting Peer Observations

As the previous discussion suggests, peer observations can enhance collegiality and provide useful feedback for focusing on the quality of teaching. However, such benefits cannot be realized unless the observations are conducted systematically over time by trained observers. Unfortunately, as Acheson (1981) points out, "There is no single most appropriate technique or set of techniques that everyone should use in observing, just as there is no panacea that will solve all the problems faced by professional educators" (p. 1). Some general guidelines, however, can help faculty avoid the potential barriers cited earlier and capitalize on a unique opportunity to involve fellow faculty members in their teaching improvement.

The following guidelines are drawn from experiences with the systematic peer observation program that has been in place at The University of Maryland University College since the mid-1980's (for a further description of the program, see Millis, 1989). Consistent with the process established in that program, the guidelines presume the use of written reviews and discussion as part of the peer observation process.

1. Classroom observations must be conducted in an atmosphere of mutual trust and respect. Such an atmosphere requires a collaborative approach to the process. Weimer (1990) advocates reciprocal visits with a "colleague as helper." Wilkerson (1988) notes:

> A collaborative approach recognizes the professional status of both the teacher and the observer. It can help reduce the threat perceived by the teacher in being observed, lessen the impact of observer bias, and enhance the skills of the teacher in accurately assessing and improving his or her own teaching. (p. 96)

Cashin (1989) makes a distinction between observers as "peers" ("faculty members knowledgeable in the subject matter") and "colleagues," those individuals "familiar with higher education's academic enterprise—but not knowledgeable of the specific subject matter" (p. 2). In practice, these distinctions are readily acknowledged and can shape the subsequent exchanges. Occasionally, classroom observations, usually those conducted for summative purposes, are clouded by "political" issues or "hidden agendas" that can affect the atmosphere of the observation process and, ultimately, the relationship of the faculty involved. In small departments where people are in competition for a limited number of tenure slots, for example, faculty members may need to look outside their immediate disciplines for someone in a related discipline who might provide more objectivity and a safer atmosphere for useful discussion. Colleagues from outside a discipline bring strengths: they are not blinded by their own preconceptions about how a topic can best be taught; they can easily assume a student perspective because they are unfamiliar with the material; and they can focus on the pedagogical activities unfolding in the classroom because they are not overly focused on content issues. Any content issues not covered by an out-of-discipline classroom observer can be addressed, if necessary, in a separate review of course materials. Ideally, also, ongoing classroom reviews can be conducted by two observers, one within the department (a "peer") and one outside it (a "colleague").

2. Individuals involved in classroom observations should take advantage of opportunities for training in conducting observations. Centra (1979) notes that trained observers make sounder observations than those who have not been trained (p. 76). If training in conducting classroom observations is available, either through departmental initiatives or through a campus-wide center for teaching excellence, then both parties should take advantage of such an opportunity. Often training sessions address the entire observation process but focus on two key practices: how and what to observe and record and how to provide constructive feedback. Annual training sessions at the University of Maryland University College (UMUC), for example, begin with an overview of the peer visit process and then move into role plays focused on giving constructive feedback about relevant classroom data. The role plays are triggered by a short videotape of a teacher in action, by a staged presentation where a lively faculty member simulates a classroom lecture, or by case studies of teaching scenarios with accompanying questions. The three hour session concludes with small group discussions of key issues.

3. Both faculty members should recognize that effective peer classroom observations are part of a consultation process, not an end in themselves. In order for the full benefits of peer observations to be realized, both parties must accept the fact that the peer observation is a process of which the actual observation is only one part. The program as it has been instituted at UMUC has several important stages including an initial meeting between the observer and the instructor, the observation, preparation of the narrative document that describes the observation, a post-observation conference, and ongoing activities to follow up on efforts to enhance the instructor's teaching. These stages will be reflected in the guidelines that follow.

4. A pre-observation conference between the instructor and the visitor is necessary for clarifying expectations, logistics, and protocol for the observation process. The Peer Visit Packet (Millis, 1987) used in UMUC's partially FIPSE-funded peer visit program offers the following suggestions for this meeting:

> The instructor should give the visitor an overview of the course as a whole. How does s/he feel things are going? Are the students well-prepared and well-motivated? Are they at the level he or she anticipated? Do they contribute willingly during class discussions? Is the physical classroom environment comfortable? What does the instructor hope to achieve during the semester? What are the course goals? If time permits, the instructor and the visitor might exchange some ideas about teaching philosophies and preferred teaching styles. They could discuss issues such as grade inflation, multiculturalism, or plagiarism.
>
> The conversation should turn at some point to the specific class that the observer will visit. What are the objectives for that particular session? How do they fit in with the overall course goals? What activities will occur (small group discussion, a role play or debate, oral reports, a lecture, etc.)?

> Why does the instructor feel these activities will help achieve the objectives s/he has set? Has the instructor used these techniques before? What activities or assignments have preceded this particular class?
>
> Finally, the instructor should tell the visitor what type of feedback would prove particularly helpful. Is a class well-organized? Are students attentive? Does the pacing need to be modified? Does the visitor notice any distracting mannerisms? Can the instructor be heard at the back of the room?
>
> During this discussion, the instructor should share with the visitor all relevant classroom materials, including the course syllabus. This would be an opportune time to review other materials such as examinations or assignment guidelines. (pp. 1-2)

As Sorcinelli & Sorcinelli (1988) note, the pre-observation conference also provides an opportunity to discuss logistical details of the observation. Such details can include the dates, times, and location of the visit and the seating arrangements for the observer. It is also a good idea to clarify protocol about the amount and degree of interaction that will take place between the students and the observer. Students, particularly adults, often want to "chat" with visitors. There is always the possibility that the visitor will be privy to comments that are not solicited. Although such comments can provide good feedback, the faculty member being visited should agree that he/she is receptive to this source of information. In addition, the two peers or colleagues should discuss the desirability of the visitor's becoming involved in class activities or discussions. Usually visitors take notes openly but remain essentially detached observers. In some cases, however, the instructor might invite the visitor to participate along with the students in order to assess the effectiveness of specific instructional activities. The rule here should be "no surprises": the visitor should not unexpectedly jump into a class discussion, nor should the faculty member suddenly demand that the visitor answer questions or participate in class activities.

5. Before the observation, the two parties should decide on the instrument or approach that will focus the observation. Typically, if there is time, this decision is also made during the initial meeting. Certainly the decision must be resolved before the observation, as the instrument determines not only the kind but also the quality of the information obtained.

Historically, few predesigned instruments have been available (Seldin, 1980). Consequently, in the summer of 1990, UMUC's Office of Faculty Development conducted a literature review and polled all members of the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD), asking that they share instruments and information about classroom observations. Although over 60 institutions responded to the poll, relatively few instruments suitable for widespread faculty use in classroom observations surfaced from respondents or from the literature review.

For a variety of reasons the available instruments are not particularly conducive to the peer observation process. Checklists, for example, are often useful for inspiration about good teaching but are cumbersome in practice as visitors fumble for the appropriate boxes. Furthermore, such checklists, like most student evaluation instruments, presuppose that given behaviors contribute to effective teaching. Instruments using complex systems for analyzing and recording information, often with diagrams about speakers and their intent, serve as powerful research tools but have limited value during actual observations. Other instruments that narrow the focus of the observation to specific topics, such as questioning skills or student participation, often do not capture the breadth and depth of teaching. Similar instruments designed for lecture, discussion, and small group formats have the well-intentioned purpose of respecting the validity of the pedagogical approach, but become too rigid when faculty members, particularly those teaching in three-hour blocks, switch to other classroom approaches. Some complex instruments require specialized training for those who use them and are thus not accessible to the average faculty classroom observer.

Our experience suggests that most faculty favor a focused narrative review based on extensive, objective classroom notes. Such a review also seems to be a valuable stimulus for instructional improvement. Evertson and Holley (1981) recommend a narrative approach because it is more natural, more holistic, and more contextual (p. 104). Faculty are comfortable with a straightforward, flexible, common-sense approach. A narrative instrument captures concretely and logically the actual classroom events as they unfold without preexisting assumptions about what should occur.

At UMUC over one hundred peer visitors have been trained to use a narrative approach based on a Classroom Visit Form, which was designed by a faculty committee and endorsed by surveys in 1988 and 1992 of both visitors and those visited (for a list of the information on the form, see Appendix A). The instrument does not presuppose any particular pedagogical approach, but attempts instead to capture—with focus—what actually occurs during the observation.

6. Faculty members being visited should consider the value of completing pre- and post-observation self-assessment instruments in order to stimulate the reflection needed for meaningful change. Self-evaluation—defined by Carroll (1981) as "making judgments about one's own teaching" (p. 180)—can be a powerful tool for teaching improvement, particularly within a broader context of data collection from multiple sources (Nyquist & Wulff, 1988). As faculty development specialists recognize, meaningful change occurs most often when assumptions are challenged and faculty have opportunities to rethink their basic approaches to teaching. There are a variety of instruments available in the literature that can be used to accomplish this purpose (for instance, see Bergquist and Phillips, 1975). One such self-assessment instrument used at University College is included in Appendix B (For the purposes of this article, the form has been consolidated without the usual amount of space for visitors to write responses). Then once the observation has been completed, the faculty member being visited might also consider filling out a post-observation instrument (see Appendix C) so that the visitor and faculty member will have additional points for comparison.

7. The instructor and visitor should make the classroom visit as comfortable as possible for everyone involved. The length of a classroom observation may vary depending on the class schedule and format and the purpose of the observation. For classes extending beyond a typical fifty-minute period, visitors should arrive well in advance of the beginning of class and exit during breaks. In addition to modeling courteous, non-disruptive behavior by following such guidelines, the visitor might also consider using pre-class or break time for brief exchanges with the instructor to reinforce the collegiality underlying the visit. For their role in the process, faculty members should be open with students about the nature and purpose of visits, telling them beforehand what will take place and why and encouraging them to behave naturally. Ideally, faculty members should introduce visitors to the classes, and the visitors should feel free to sit with students, sharing textbooks and presentation materials.

8. Only after the observation should visitors complete a narrative instrument such as UMUC's Classroom Visit Form. During the observation, the visitor should assume the dual roles of a student notetaker and an analytical, sympathetic "critic." Thus, observers, like students, can come to a class well-prepared because of the pre-observation discussion. They can literally transcribe lecture notes or small group activities, just as a student would, so that there is a rich contextual record of the classroom activities. Adjacent to these student-oriented notes, the observer can record reflective marginal comments, making it easy to provide specific information about the unfolding "situated act." The specifics of the narrative instrument should not be completed, however, until the visitor has left the classroom.

At some point the faculty members should agree on the procedures for preparing the final narrative document. There are several options the two might consider. In some cases, the form is completed only after consultation with the instructor. This approach ensures that both parties understand what will be included in the written instrument and also allows for clarification of any ambiguous points. The visitor, for example, may have misinterpreted the purpose of a small group exercise. For cases in which the faculty member first wants an opportunity to reflect in private on the observer's comments, however, it could be helpful for the visitor to complete the narrative form, clearly mark it a "draft," and give the instructor time to review it before the post-observation discussion. In rare situations, two faculty members, perhaps colleagues visiting one another's classes, may be comfortable sitting down with the final document between them as they discuss possible action-oriented teaching enhancements.

In some cases the visitor may find it helpful to consult with instructional/faculty development specialists before completing the form. In these instances, the visitor might ask such questions as: How can I provide the faculty member I have visited with constructive comments that will lead to change, not resistance? What specific teaching resources (articles, books, videotapes, etc.) can I recommend? What specific teaching innovations, such as "think-pair-share," a cooperative learning technique, can help this faculty member meet specified goals such as ensuring student interaction in a large auditorium?

In completing the final written documentation of the observation, visitors should provide information that is objectively phrased, balanced, and action-oriented. It is helpful if they adopt a conversational style, use the second person, if possible, and avoid judgmental terms such as "good" or "poor." They should describe specifically what they observed, giving direct quotations and examples. For instance, rather than say, "Class interaction was terrific," visitors could write: "Students participated eagerly. In fact, fifteen hands shot up when you asked for a definition of marginal costing." Some visitors may prefer to record in the narrative instrument only objective observations, saving any specific recommendations for the face-to-face discussion, a practice particularly well-suited for teaching portfolios where faculty can subsequently offer reflective commentary on the objective "artifact."

Visitors will want to avoid, of course, anything that smacks of a "whitewash" or "cover-up": the narrative should be balanced, noting both positive areas to reinforce good teaching practices and areas in which the teaching practices seemed less successful. Teaching improvement suggestions should also be action and future oriented. If faculty are to make constructive changes in their teaching expectations and behaviors, however, they should feel "ownership" of the consultation process. Constructive feedback should be worded so that the faculty member clearly has the option—not a visitor-mandated charge—of initiating changes, as in the following example:

> Students' body language (clenched fists, perspiration, frowns) suggested tenseness during the drill over the imperfect past tense. Have you thought about having the entire class repeat a mispronounced word rather than the individual student? Have you looked into homework checks conducted in long-term small groups where students are more comfortable about taking risks?

Three important steps, then, are involved in moving from the observation to the written document: a) note taking during the observation; b) reflection, sometimes coupled with additional consultation; and c) completion of the narrative instrument. Careful attention to each of these steps can produce constructive, sensitively worded feedback and productive post-observation consultations.

9. The post observation is critically important in moving the instructor toward changes that can enhance teaching. For this reason, it is important to provide the feedback in a setting where instructors feel comfortable discussing their teaching. Then both parties can get to the heart of the teaching issues. Faculty members who have been visited should take an active role in the feedback session, avoiding defensive behaviors and identifying and describing teaching areas they wish to explore. They should be receptive to new ideas and willing to consider possible changes. The visitor should be certain that the feedback is focused and nonjudgmental. Even in the most collegial settings, many faculty become defensive. At best, they concentrate more on what occurred than on what can take place later. Thus, visitors should be as specific as possible in the feedback they offer. To avoid a prescriptive stance, rather than offer direct advice, they must encourage colleagues or peers to explore teaching options, starting with some that have been suggested in the written document. Their role is to draw out these possible changes through probing questions. Teaching anecdotes or descriptions of their own teaching practices may be helpful.

Ultimately the consultation should move to a point at which the instructor makes choices about areas to change to enhance the teaching and specific strategies to assist in making those changes. A simple grid such as the Teaching Action Plan (Appendix D) used at UMUC can focus discussion, assist the instructor in determining specific areas for changes, and establish timelines for making those changes.

10. Finally, the instructor and the observer should plan and conduct activities designed to follow up on ideas discussed during the post-obser-

vation meeting. The action plan grid can also ensure that both parties commit to following through with a specific plan of action. Too often, faculty members or administrators leave meetings filled with energy and resolve, only to discover days later that competing claims for attention leave them wondering: "What did we discuss? What did I say I would do?" Conscientious faculty members complete the blank areas on the grid as they develop plans for trying new activities. Such follow-up efforts might also include additional visits to document and assess the results of teaching enhancements. In such cases the visitor might return to the classroom with open-ended questions that focus the observation primarily on areas in which the instructor has improved and areas needing further improvement. To provide additional follow-up, the pair might discuss effective ways to integrate the information gleaned from the visit(s) with other teaching data such as student evaluations.

Conclusion

Following these guidelines, both visitors and those visited at UMUC find value in the systematic program for peer classroom observation. In surveys conducted in 1988 and in 1992 participants in the peer observation program have identified a wide range of benefits. Faculty members often mentioned the effects of visits on their teaching: The visitor gave me "one excellent piece of advice which I immediately put to use and continue to use" and "the program has been very helpful in my teaching." Others recognized the importance of reinforcing positive teaching practices: "The comments on what she liked helped me recognize my strengths." Collegiality was mentioned often: The program offers an "opportunity for faculty in different disciplines to connect through a common interest—effective instruction" and is "especially helpful for those of us teaching off campus." Faculty mentioned that "University College does care about the quality of its programs and about faculty," and it also "builds student confidence in me and in UMUC." Many visitors commented on their own professional growth: "I have learned many new approaches and techniques as a peer visitor" or, more modestly, "I learned as much as a *visitor* as I imagine a *visitee* learned from me!" One faculty member enthusiastically declared: "Affirming! I believe validation, growth, and community are the three principle positives." As the comments suggest, well-conducted peer classroom observations provide eloquent, specific, "connected" visions of teaching at its finest.

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Appendix A

Classroom Visit Instrument (Consolidated)

University College
Undergraduate Programs
Classroom Visit

Faculty Member:________________ Course & Section:________________
Date:________ Length of Visit:________ Place: ______Visitor:________
Number of Students Present:_________

Classroom: Note any inadequate aspects of the classroom (size, temperature, acoustics, lighting, etc.)

Instruction: Comment on the presentation of the material: points to be covered and their relevance to class session, knowledge of subject matter, organization of lecture, explanation of terms and concepts.

Instructor/Student Rapport: Comment on student involvement and interaction with the instructor: opportunities for students to ask questions, answers to questions, guidance of class discussion, openness to suggestions and ideas.

Style of Presentation: Comment on gestures, physical movement, pitch and tone of voice, eye contact with students, use of resources such as blackboard, audio-visual media, handouts and other materials, demonstrations, student presentations and group activities, and the integration of various elements of the class session.

Syllabus: Comment on the syllabus and other written materials provided by the instructor. (Please refer to the University College *Syllabus Construction Handbook.*)

General Comments: What part of the class seemed particularly to enhance the learning process? What specific suggestions can you give for improving this particular class?

The University of Maryland University College Peer Visit Program

Appendix B

Self-Assessment Instrument For General Teaching (Consolidated)

FACULTY SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

1. How or why did you decide to become a teacher?

2. What do you enjoy most about teaching?

3. What do you enjoy least about teaching?

4. If you were not in your current profession, what would you like to be doing?

5. Within your discipline, what area or areas do you regard as your strongest?

6. Which do you regard as your weakest?

7. What is your greatest asset as a classroom teacher?

8. What is your greatest shortcoming as a classroom teacher?

9. What do you consider your greatest accomplishment as a teacher in the last three years?

10. Your greatest failure?

11. What is the one criticism that you are most fearful of receiving from a student? From a colleague?

12. What three things would you most like to change about your teaching?

13. What is the most important thing a student can learn from you?

14. Do you feel that your discipline is best taught by a particular approach (method) or teaching strategy and, if so, which approach, and why do you feel it is the best?

15. What have you found most gratifying in your work with University College? Most disappointing or frustrating?

Appendix C

Self-Assessment Instrument For Specific Session (Consolidated)

CLASSROOM SESSION SELF-APPRAISAL

by Barbara J. Millis

Complete this form as soon as possible after the conclusion of the session. Check A, B, C, or D and then complete the sentences underneath. Be as specific and as objective as you can.

MY OVERALL RESPONSE TO THE SESSION WAS:

A. _____ EVERYTHING WENT SUPERBLY. My teaching was dynamic and effective, the students were responsive and seemed to learn a great deal, the objectives for the overall course and this particular class were met, etc. I would not change anything.

1. I think the session went so well because:
2. The aspects of my teaching that seemed most effective were:
3. My teaching is/is not usually this good because:
4. I plan to repeat the following activities, approaches, or teaching strategies:

B. _____ IN GENERAL, THE CLASS WENT FAIRLY WELL.

1. I was disappointed in:
2. I would change the following things by doing:
3. I was most proud of:

C. _____ THIS SEEMED TO BE AN AVERAGE CLASSROOM EXPERIENCE.

1. I was disappointed in:
2. I would change the following things by doing:
3. I was most proud of:
4. I think the following things (teaching strategies, student shortcomings, physical environment, etc.) contributed to the mediocrity:
5. I will change the following before I teach this course again:

D. _____ THE CLASS WAS GENERALLY NOT SUCCESSFUL.

1. I think the session went so poorly because:
2. My worst moments were when:
3. My teaching is/is not usually this ineffective because:
4. I plan to eliminate these activities, approaches, or teaching strategies:
5. I will change the following (give timetable):

Appendix D

Name: Date:	Course: Section No.:	**Teaching Action Plan**	
Area of Change	**Suggested Change**	**Timetable**	**Record of Action**

Effective Programming for TA Development

Lavon Gappa

Florida State University

Developing programs that prepare teaching assistants (TAs) to be competent classroom instructors is a challenging process. An effective training program must address a variety of dimensions in the daily lives of TAs as well as each TA's development during the TA experience. This article describes a program that attempts to meet these challenges by appointing experienced TAs as teaching associates to give instructional direction to less experienced TAs in a process that enhances the associates' own professional development and results in an effective training program for all TAs.

Colleges and universities are under pressure from lawmakers, students, and parents to provide quality undergraduate education. Central to efforts to enhance undergraduate instruction are teaching assistants (TAs), who not only are responsible for a major portion of lower division instruction at many research universities but are the faculty members of tomorrow (Gappa, 1991; Keller, 1986; Nyquist & Wulff, 1987; Smock & Menges, 1985). Mangan (1992) reports that institutions nationwide are responding to the increasingly important role that TAs assume in undergraduate instruction by creating university-wide TA training programs, strengthening departmentally-based TA training programs, and expanding faculty development programs to include training for TAs.

Developing programs that prepare teaching assistants to be competent classroom instructors, however, is a challenging process. It requires a focus on the various dimensions of the TA experience, including the "needs and characteristics of TAs themselves, the relationships that TAs have with other TAs, the demands of the students they teach, [and] the expectations of supervisors and administrators . . . . " (Nyquist, Abbott, and Wulff, 1989, p.

11). In addition to the dimensions that affect TAs as beginning teachers, the TA program must also address the characteristic changes that occur in TAs' development. Sprague and Nyquist (1989, p. 44) label the developmental phases through which TAs pass during their TA years as "senior learner," "colleague in training," and "junior colleague." The senior learner is a beginning TA who is the expert student undergoing the confusing transition from learner to instructor; his/her immediate concern is how to fit into the role of teacher. At the level of colleague in training, the TA, becoming more confident in the instructional role, seeks to explore and develop alternative instructional approaches. In the final phase of development, junior colleagues are "able to transcend, combine, and create systems of instruction and to express their academic knowledge in a variety of vocabularies" and are looking for "opportunities to make professional judgments and try out creative educational approaches" (Sprague & Nyquist, 1989, p. 45). In an ideal training program junior colleagues are "essential to the development of new TAs" (Sprague and Nyquist, 1989, p. 51).

How, then, can we provide effective TA training while addressing the developmental phases of TAs? One way to respond to this challenge is to develop a program that uses teaching associates, junior colleagues who assist in preparing less experienced TAs (senior learners and colleagues in training) for their instructional roles. This article describes the role and training of teaching associates at Florida State University, where the use of teaching associates results in an effective training program for all TAs while simultaneously contributing to the associates' development as future academicians.

The Teaching Associate Appointment

Teaching associates are experienced TAs who are nominated by their departments, selected by a university-wide committee of faculty, and trained through the Program for Instructional Excellence at Florida State University to conduct TA training activities for less experienced TAs. The associates receive a stipend provided by the university-wide TA program for appointments during fall and spring semesters. They are compensated for five hours per week (12% FTE) each semester, in addition to the regular TA stipends provided by their departments.[1]

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[1] For more information regarding the structure of the Teaching Associate Program at Florida State University, see "The Teaching Associate Program: A Collaborative Approach" in *Selected readings In TA training*, 3rd National Conference, University of Texas, Austin, Texas. Forthcoming.

Initially, the teaching associates attend a required informational meeting where the responsibilities of their roles are described. Because the associates serve as liaisons between their individual departments and the university-wide program, the appointments carry responsibilities to both the departmental and the university-wide TA training programs. Exactly how the time is spent, however, is unique for each associate. In departments where established TA training is in place, the associate's responsibilities are supplementary and/or complementary, and the commitment of time is not as great; however, in departments where little or no TA training exists, the responsibilities and time commitment are greater. Participation in university-wide TA training activities is balanced with departmental responsibilities; for instance, associates with fewer department commitments are assigned greater responsibilities in the university-wide TA programs. Because previous associates have provided feedback to suggest that the time commitment can be a problem, the initial meeting includes discussion of ways the associates can make the best use of time in meeting their responsibilities for both the departmental and the university-wide TA training programs.

Departmental Programs

Knowing that the associates will be an important resource to them, departments nominate their best TAs for these roles. Although the associates work primarily within their own disciplines for departmental training, occasionally the training program is at the level of a college rather than a specific department (for example, in the College of Business). Regardless of the level of the training program, however, the associates use the knowledge of their specific disciplines to design and develop TA training activities.

To facilitate their ability to develop TA training programs in their departments, the associates attend a Program Design Workshop conducted by staff in the university-wide program. The components of program design that are presented and applied in the workshop include assessment of department TA needs, formulation of broad goals, identification of program objectives, selection of a medium to implement objectives, evaluation of the program, revision and redesign. During the workshop, the associates make professional design decisions and try creative discipline-specific approaches in the development of TA training activities. To supplement the workshop instruction and to support ongoing design decisions, the associates receive *The Teaching Associate Handbook*, which provides detailed information on departmental training options and activities such as:

- organizing department orientations and workshops including sample department programs;

- making a peer observation program work including useful evaluation checklists and suggestions on giving effective feedback;
- arranging for videotaping and providing feedback to improve classroom instructional skills. This is done either by the associate or by the university-wide TA training program;
- consulting as a one-on-one training option for associates in departments with small numbers of TAs. The associates are provided with guidelines on how to give feedback, support, and guidance for improved teaching;
- facilitating midterm evaluation that assesses TAs' teaching performance and improves their instructional skills.

Once they begin to design the departmental programs, the teaching associates take a problem solving approach in which they consider a variety of important factors. First, they consider the specific needs of TAs in their disciplines. The associates then customize what they have learned about good teaching to the specific needs of the TAs in their departments. As a result, the departmental programs are closely aligned with the issues and ways of thinking in the specific disciplines. The associates also consider the literature that suggests that "communication during TA socialization serves four distinct functions: to develop a social support system, obtain information, adjust to rules and policies, and generate new ideas about teaching and research" (Staton and Darling, 1990, p. 20). Thus, they design activities to fulfill these functions for the new TAs. The associates also attempt to address the needs and characteristics of TAs at various levels of development: orientations for senior learners, instructional skills workshops for colleagues in training, and collegial discussions for junior colleagues. Additional factors that have an impact on the design of the associates' TA training activities are the departmental responsibilities of TAs, administrative and faculty support for TAs, the department and university resources (instructional and clerical) available to TAs, and the relationships TAs have with other TAs. After completing the initial program design, the associates meet with university-wide consultants (and each other) to discuss the match between their designs and the needs of departmental TAs, the implementation of the program, and the time commitment required. Each associate's program design is then submitted as a proposal to his/her department chair, who meets with the associate and the director of the university-wide program to discuss, adjust, and ultimately approve and support the implementation of the departmental TA training design. (Appendix A provides a description of two such programs designed and developed by associates.)

Using teaching associates to design departmental programs provides a number of distinct advantages. First, the approach provides TA training that meets the discipline-specific needs of less experienced TAs. Simultaneously, it provides a way for the associates to enhance their understanding of their disciplines as they function as colleagues in training and junior colleagues. Because they are committed to teaching and eager to share their TA experience, the associates are highly motivated by the opportunity to assist department TAs in assessing needs and balancing the many dimensions that affect their performance as teaching assistants. In the process, the associates learn much about their disciplines. Finally, because of their knowledge and experience in the specific disciplines and the training for their roles, the associates are able to establish credibility among the TAs, providing a sense of satisfaction and successful working relationships for implementing TA training activities. As a result of the experience in designing a departmental program, one associate reported:

> Learning about other programs and differences in TA responsibilities and techniques broadened my framework for understanding teaching and its various responsibilities and rewards. I gained a greater appreciation for the strengths of my own departmental and college system, as well as insights into new and better ways to do some of the things that need to be improved upon.

University-Wide Programs

In addition to assuming major roles in designing and implementing departmental TA training programs, the associates also design and lead activities in the university-wide training programs. These university-wide responsibilities involve roles in both orientation sessions and ongoing workshops.

Designing and Conducting University-Wide Orientation Sessions

Twice each year, during the week preceding the fall and spring semesters, new and experienced TAs participate in three-day and two-day university-wide orientations. To prepare the associates for their roles as presenters and/or small group leaders during the orientation, planning sessions are held the week preceding the orientations. As part of the planning, associates brainstorm to identify immediate issues that affect TAs' performance in the classroom and that need to be addressed in the orientation. Following the identification of the essential content, the associates write goals for the sessions. The final components of the planning involve the development of appropriate strategies and the selection of instructional materials. In the past, a variety of sessions have resulted from this pre-orientation planning:

What I Wish I Had Known, a Phil Donahue Show format, allows the associates to share their experiences with other TAs and respond to questions and concerns about undergraduates, university policies, and classroom instructional effectiveness.

Meeting the First Class is a session in which the associates provide participants with a plan for getting the course moving in a positive direction. A class syllabus is constructed within a general discussion of course planning.

Cheating and Other Problems is a lively session in which the associates discuss ways of preventing and dealing with problems that TAs may have to face in and out of the classroom.

One-on-One Teaching is centered on discussion of ways to explain effectively and listen attentively during office hours, in the laboratory, and in other circumstances when TAs teach students individually.

Writing and Learning sessions provide instruction by associates from the Department of English on how to improve students' writing skills. The sessions cover such issues as making writing assignments, evaluating student writing, and providing useful feedback without hours of grading.

Practice Teaching and Videotaping sessions give TAs a chance to teach a brief segment of a mock class. The "class" is videotaped and feedback is provided by the associates and fellow TAs.

Teaching associates clearly enjoy their roles in the orientation. Although they are required to attend only those training sessions conducted by the university-wide program, they personally initiate and schedule additional sessions to prepare for the orientation because of their interest and professionalism. In providing feedback about their roles in the university orientations, associates have made a variety of positive comments: "It's an opportunity to engage as and with valued professionals"; "It was refreshing to be treated as a professional with skills to offer"; and "It is good for TAs to see that people [the associates] from fields other than education have concerns about teaching and can contribute valuable ideas."

Designing and Participating in University-Wide Workshops

In addition to their roles in the university orientations, the associates also play an active part in two sets of workshops that are conducted through the university-wide program: the TA Workshop Series and the Teaching Associate Professional Development Workshop Series.

The TA Workshop Series provides sessions that focus on immediate classroom instructional skills and issues specifically relevant to senior learners and colleagues in training who teach in undergraduate classrooms. Shortly after being appointed, the associates are asked to prioritize topics (instructional skills and academic issues and concerns) that should be presented in the workshops. Then, as facilitators and small group leaders during the workshops, the associates assist less experienced TAs in dealing with such topics as: *Lecturing for Learning, Active Learning, Critical Thinking,* and *Motivating Students to Learn.* Panels discussing issues that affect TAs include: *Ethics in Higher Education, Diversity in the Classroom,* and *Interpreting Student Evaluations.*

The associates plan and develop The Teaching Associate Professional Development Workshop Series. The goal of this series is to provide a transition and transformation (for junior colleagues and colleagues in training) from graduate students to college professors. Past workshops have included a variety of sessions:

Advancement of Women in Academe is a panel discussion of the particular issues women need to address in getting an academic position. What is a desirable position? What is the wrong position? How does one ask the right questions? This session brings out the issues and norms involved in getting a promotion and achieving tenure including adopting a five-year career plan, and networking.

Getting a Job in Academe provides participants with tactics for locating an opening, submitting an application, surviving an interview, and negotiating an offer. The panel consists of chairpersons and faculty who share their experiences of successfully competing for positions and serving on search committees. Many of the associates and junior colleagues are in the process of applying for positions and are also able to provide firsthand accounts of their experiences.

The workshops during university-wide training provide opportunities for the teaching associates and the other TAs to work together and share ideas. As a geology associate commented, "I appreciated the opportunity to 'network' with others. . . . I got many new ideas and references for the future from the workshops." Another reported that "It is stimulating to interact with TAs from other departments who are also interested in teaching as a profession, and not just as a way to get through grad school."

Ongoing Instructional Support as Models and Mentors

In addition to their formal instructional roles in departmental and university-wide training activities, teaching associates provide ongoing instructional support to TAs as models and mentors. Throughout the departmental and university-wide training sessions, associates model the skills of effective teaching in various disciplines. During one-on-one encounters or small-group activities, associates demonstrate that they have thought carefully about the approaches to the training and the ideas being discussed as they mentor inexperienced TAs in obtaining instructional information and skills. Often, rapport is greatly enhanced when participants realize the associates are, themselves, TAs and colleagues. At social events, additional opportunities for mentoring are provided when TAs ask the associates questions—sometimes high-risk questions they would not ask professors—about policies and procedures. Finally, the associates, representing different disciplines and variety in terms of age, gender, sexual orientation, and cultural background, provide a multicultural dimension that models the importance of diversity in all parts of the university community.

Conclusion

Providing training that prepares TAs to be effective teachers at various developmental stages is a challenge. The use of teaching associates, however, is one approach that seems to be responsive to that challenge. By offering a comprehensive training program that involves all TAs, as teachers as well as learners, we enhance the quality of undergraduate education at our institution and also provide TAs with opportunities for professional growth and a bridge to careers as university professors.

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Appendix A

Department Programs

The Department of Communication had semi-formal TA training in place when the associate was appointed. The training activities consisted of faculty mentoring, informal orientations preceding the fall and spring semesters and occasional "brown bags" held during the academic year. A credit seminar, "Teaching Communication in College," is offered by the department, but not required of teaching assistants. The associate:

- planned a department orientation to coincide with the university-wide TA orientation.
- consulted with individual TAs to discuss teaching concerns.
- recruited faculty to observe TA sections for feedback and evaluation of teaching skills.
- publicized university-wide TA workshops. These workshops are now mandatory for all department TAs.
- conducted "brown bag" series to discuss instructional models with faculty invited.
- developed a resource center for TAs that is known as "The Toolbox."
- argued for more office space for TAs.
- disseminated information regarding university-wide TA program resources available for increasing TA effectiveness in the classroom.

- published an "important dates" newsletter at the beginning of the semester.

Departments in the College of Business provided a variety of TA training activities prior to the appointment of three associates. Training activities included faculty mentoring, short orientations covering policy information, and occasional informal TA meetings. The associates in the Management, Marketing and Accounting departments:

- gathered syllabi for all College of Business classes and established a resource center.
- provided TAs with an inventory of College of Business resources available to all instructors including methods of instruction and media resources.
- organized a colloquium at which the associate dean discussed the role and responsibility of TAs in the College of Business.
- Arranged a session on "Trends in Business Education" conducted by the associate dean.
- organized a session discussing the organizational structure of the College of Business and an explanation of undergraduate services.
- encouraged faculty and experienced TAs to allow new TAs to observe their lectures.
- arranged "brown bags" which included a discussion on teaching philosophies and teaching quantitative methods.
- solicited interest in the workshops provided by the university-wide TA training program.
- set up office hours to allow TAs to ask questions and "bounce ideas off" experienced TAs.
- acted as liaisons between TAs and their individual department supervisors.

Reflections on Teaching Courses in Faculty Development: Three Case Studies

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While faculty development programs are increasing in number and scope, opportunities for educating and training individuals in faculty development are few. The purpose of this paper is to highlight three current approaches to teaching instructional and faculty development. Teachers of these courses were asked to reflect upon their experiences in developing courses and teaching about faculty development. These reflections became case studies that were examined for commonalities across the experiences. Themes related to content, methodology, and professional growth are identified and discussed.

Despite the vagaries of federal funding during the past two decades, a proliferation of teaching support and faculty development activities has appeared on American college campuses. In an early survey of faculty development practices (Centra, 1976), 167 (41% of the 408) respondents reported that their institutions had some person or unit on campus whose charge was faculty development or instructional improvement. A more recent survey (Erickson, 1986) concluded that more programs are being initiated; in this study, 277 (or 44% of the 630) respondents reported that their institutions had some person or unit on campus whose charge was faculty development or instructional improvement. Moreover, 66% of the 630 respondents reported that their institution's commitment to faculty development and instructional enhancement was *greater* than it was three years earlier.

While faculty development programs are quickly increasing in number and scope, opportunities for educating and training individuals in faculty development are growing less rapidly. Although some practitioners have received short-term or on-the-job training, many report that they are "self-taught" and practice "by the seat of their pants" (Brinko, 1990). This article describes efforts undertaken to address the need for ways to provide education and training for instructional/faculty developers. The purposes are threefold: first, to highlight three current efforts to teach courses in instructional and faculty development; second, to examine the approaches to the field of faculty development as conceptualized by the instructors; and, third, to identify common themes among the efforts.

The first effort is a graduate course taught at the University of Toronto, an urban doctoral-granting institution; the second is a graduate seminar team-taught by two individuals at Appalachian State University, a rural comprehensive institution; and the third is a national residential institute for new instructional/faculty developers, team-taught by five individuals. Implicit in each of these efforts is a carefully considered definition of faculty development and perhaps the beginnings of some conceptual models for training and practice in the profession.

Richard Tiberius: Reflections on a Graduate Course at the University of Toronto

Graduate courses at the University of Toronto, like graduate courses almost everywhere, are not supposed to be "how-to" courses. Our School of Graduate Studies would like graduate instructors to emphasize the enhancement of understanding and the critical examination of ideas rather than the acquisition of skills. This requirement is no problem for teachers of "academic disciplines" like philosophy or history. But what about teachers of subjects that are practices, rather than disciplines, like medicine and educational development? What is the role of such courses, if any, in a graduate program? Since 1978, when I first taught my graduate course entitled "Educational Development: An Examination of the Strategies for Improving Teaching and Learning in Post-Secondary Institutions," I have been struggling with this issue.

There has been a strong and constant demand for a survey course in the methods of enhancing the teaching and learning process in higher education, and this course has been oversubscribed practically every year. It attracts a broad spectrum of students—community college chairs and principals who have responsibilities for faculty development or curriculum planning or organizational development; university and college teachers with similar responsibilities; teachers who would like to know more about their own teaching; and even some graduate students who intend to become instructional/faculty developers or educational consultants. Over the years these learners have made it clear that their priority is the practice of educational development, not the theory. The design of the course—both content and teaching methods—has been heavily influenced by this priority.

Goals and Objectives

The learning objectives, both practical and theoretical, are designed to help the student do educational development. The practical objectives include: familiarity with each of the methods through direct experience; knowledge about the major resources in the field—books, journals, organizations, and human networks; ability to speak at least "tourist-level" educational development language and familiarity with buzz words and shibboleths; and ability to define a teaching-learning problem and to design a systematic educational development program to address it.

The theoretical objectives include the ability to examine: methods of educational development critically using pragmatic criteria such as effectiveness and efficiency; theoretical criteria such as coherency and soundness of underlying assumptions, values, and metaphors; and moral criteria such as freedom, personal integrity, and equality.

Organization

A collection of topics does not make a coherent course. Thus, I kept rearranging the topics, searching for an integrative theme. During that period I was writing about metaphors underlying educational development, and I was struck by the powerful effect that metaphors of teaching had on the choice of both method of teaching and method of improving teaching. So, I arranged the topics in a sequence that reflected what I had described as an historical shift from teaching as a "transmission of messages" to teaching as "dialogue" (Tiberius, 1986). Moreover, as I teach, I draw parallels for each topic between this historical shift and a similar metaphorical shift within individual teachers, as described by Pratt (1989) and Sherman, Armistead, Fowler, Barksdale, and Reif (1987).

The weekly topics consist of various approaches to educational development. The first of these describes what I call the "generic skills approach to teaching and learning." Under this heading we examine teaching manuals, student skills manuals, "how-to" books for teachers, and other self-help materials. We discuss the likelihood that teachers and developers who are most attracted to such methods are those who tend to view teaching and learning as a process of transmission of information from teacher to learner. Such teachers view teaching as a set of skilled performances that can be learned in the absence of the students.

The second approach is described as "practice with feedback outside the real classroom." This approach includes simulations, exercises, workshops, and other interactive methods of teaching improvement. There are two main sub-categories, those in which the actual students are present (workshops and laboratory teaching) and those in which they are absent (workshops, micro-teaching, and video playback). Again, we discuss the metaphorical and conceptual basis underlying the choice of this kind of method. It is obvious that this approach must go beyond individual skilled performances to include the interpersonal interactions.

The third general approach to educational development is described as "practice with feedback in real classroom settings." Methods in this category must address the realities of the classroom setting. There are two sub-categories: the first includes classroom research and evaluation-driven methods, and the second includes consulting methods.

A fourth approach, "relationship enhancement," represents a most radical departure from the individual skills training approach. Methods in this category focus on enhancing the teacher-student interaction and relationships, and are therefore concerned almost exclusively with attitudes.

The fifth and sixth approaches take the class completely beyond the teacher and learner as an interpersonal system, to the teacher and learner as part of an "instructional system" (fifth) and to all the above as parts of an "organizational system" (sixth).

Methods of Instruction

The first part of every class consists of students' making brief summaries of the articles that they have read and connecting them with their personal experiences. We follow the "inside-out" philosophy of Hunt (1987) that inspires teachers and learners to begin with their own experiences rather than abstract concepts or external knowledge. Discussion in this section is guided by a number of questions such as: What are the techniques of this approach? Does it work? Is it cost effective? What are its advantages and disadvantages compared to other approaches? When is it most appropriately used?

After a break, we attempt to identify central issues and ideas that grew out of our earlier discussion. During this time we reflect on the metaphors that might influence a teacher or developer to choose one method over another.

Evaluation

In the plan for the course, which is handed out at the beginning, learners are invited to devise any evaluation that they choose. The only limitation is that the evaluation of class participation is not allowed because I believe that evaluation of class participation compromises the emphasis on risk-taking and disclosure. To assist the students in thinking about the options, I suggest two possible written evaluation projects in the plan of the course: a description of an educational devlopment process and a review of the literature relevant to educational development.

In addition to submitting the paper, learners are required to respond to my comments about their written work. Their responses contribute to my calculation of their evaluation. Assuming the paper is submitted early enough, they may rewrite the paper based on their discussion with me and have their grade adjusted as warranted. Their responses must be in writing, in the style that would be appropriate for replying to letters from journal referees. Some learners have agreed with my comments and have written brief outlines about how they would improve their papers in a second draft; some have disagreed with my comments and have supported their disagreements with arguments; still others have reacted to my comments point-by-point.

Requiring a student response, consistent with my own metaphor of teaching and learning as a cooperative interaction, provides learners with practice in a skill that is essential to successful scholarship in the real academic world—responding to criticisms by colleagues, editors, and reviewers. I feel that this course should reflect the spirit of the field of educational development. We must practice what we preach.

Future Directions

Has the course finished evolving? Not at all. This year I added demonstrations of various techniques, one in almost every class. In the past I have observed that abstract discussions can become meaningless when participants have little first-hand experience with the methods under discussion. Perhaps I had been overzealous in trying to exclude skills in order to convince others that this was a "real" graduate course. The demonstrations, such as case-based teaching, microteaching, and video feedback have provided more opportunity for a larger number of participants to be actively involved.

The most disappointing aspect of the course has been the learner evaluation. Despite the invitation in the course plan for students to devise their own evaluation process, they rarely do so. Instead, they invariably choose one of the two written projects suggested in the course plan. As a result, next year the course plan will be modified to include an entire list of choices for evaluation in order to encourage students to choose more broadly.

Sally Atkins: Reflections on a Graduate Seminar at Appalachian State University

In the 1990-91 academic year, Kate Brinko and I developed and team-taught a new graduate seminar entitled "Faculty Development in Higher Education" in the Department of Human Development and Psychological Counseling at Appalachian State University. The rationale for offering such a course in this department was that the theories of adult development that underlie the departmental programs in counseling and student development are the same as those that form the foundation for faculty development. The rationale for offering such a course at the graduate level was that faculty development is an area of potential interest to our faculty, staff, and graduate students in related programs such as counseling and student development. We considered this course to be a "pilot project," aimed at gathering as well as sharing information.

Faculty

Both instructors are faculty in the Department of Human Development and Psychological Counseling and faculty developers affiliated with the Hubbard Center for Faculty Development and Instructional Services. We represent very different perspectives on the philosophy and practice of faculty development: Kate is trained and experienced in the field we traditionally describe as faculty development, and I am trained and experienced in counseling and psychology. We had found our different skills and perspectives to be very complementary in our practice; we had great hopes that they would be complementary in the classroom as well.

Students

The course attracted four professionals with prior background and experience in areas related to faculty development. One was a faculty member already involved in faculty development efforts on campus; two were administrative staff members who had been involved in staff development efforts for some time; and another was an advanced graduate student in the area of student development. Each of the students had completed course work beyond the master's degree, had prior work experience, was sophisticated in problem solving and thinking processes, and was highly motivated by the content area. From the beginning, we knew that we had a unique group of students, and we were able to use their experience and expertise to enrich the course.

Content and Methodology

After much research, debate, and deliberation, we designed the course to reflect a broad definition of faculty development that encompassed professional, organizational, and personal development. Because this was a graduate level course, we emphasized theoretical and philosophical issues that are inherent in the field rather than focusing on practical, "how to do it" strategies. The final content outline of the course included:

I. Overview: The academic culture
II. Foundations: Adult development theories
    A. Levinson (1978)
    B. Neugarten (1968)
    C. Erikson (1963)
    D. Gilligan (1982)
III. History of faculty development in higher education
    A. The origins of faculty development
    B. Evolution of present practices
    C. Trends and issues
IV. Faculty development in practice: Intervention linked with theory
    A. Professional development

    1. Teaching (instructional and curricular development; feedback and instructional consultation; motivation)
    2. Scholarship (definitions of scholarship; issues of productivity; supporting research and writing; issues of balancing teaching and research)
    3. Service (academic milieu; committees; advising; faculty life; academic governance; long-range planning)

- B. Organizational development
    1. Administration in higher education (lines of authority; communication; problematic areas)
    2. Academic departments (culture; expectations; governance; committees)
    3. Campus climate (motivation; vision; mission; institutional vitality)
- C. Personal development
    1. Career development
    2. Psychological counseling (employee assistance programs)
    3. Wellness programs (exercise, nutrition, health education, stress management)

The content of the course reflects our beliefs that faculty development includes a large array of programs and practices, that these programs and practices are developed over time in many areas within the institution, and that they are determined by the history, mission, and milieu of the institution. Thus, our goal with regard to content was to examine the entire array of programs and practices to see how such practices relate to institutional missions, to the overall purposes of higher education, and to the quality of life of those who live and work in academia.

Because of the expertise and sophistication of the students involved, we continually adapted both the content and the methods of the course to allow the students flexibility to pursue individual issues within the field and to share their own knowledge and experience. We taught the course primarily as a seminar, with class discussions punctuated by individual presentations, writing projects, and synopses of readings from books and journals. The major requirement was for each student to produce a scholarly article of publishable quality within her or his area of interest. This assignment resulted in four very different and interesting projects, two involving original data collection. One of the articles has been published, and two others are in preparation for publication.

Effects on Students

In their evaluations, students reported that the class content, assignments, and interactions were very meaningful both professionally and personally. Particularly valuable to them was the opportunity to pursue different interests in a context of challenge and support. The students enjoyed the team-teaching approach and the different perspectives offered by each instructor. They also liked the richness of the seminar format, which encouraged all to share their experience and expertise. The class was considered to be quite demanding in terms of reading, but appropriately so for the topics and for the level of students. Future plans for the course will reflect this feedback and will also include efforts to recruit more students.

Effects on Faculty

As faculty for the course, the most exciting and meaningful part of the experience was the opportunity to define for ourselves, in the company of questioning and motivated students, the field of faculty development. Sifting through the growing body of literature in faculty development, we grappled long and hard with a variety of design issues to determine what was appropriate in terms of content, structure, and evaluation methodologies. We expanded our scholarly backgrounds in the field to develop an extensive bibliography for the course. We stretched our own perspectives through readings and discussions with each other and our students, thus providing opportunities to consider faculty (and staff) development in its broadest sense. This collaborative re-examination of our own philosophies and practices broadened our definitions of faculty development, shifted our individual paradigms of faculty development, and strengthened our commitment to the profession.

Judy Greene: Reflections on a Training Institute for New Faculty Developers

In 1990, Sally Atkins, Kate Brinko, and I planned a week-long program to train new faculty development professionals. Aware that formal programs for the education of faculty development professionals have been very limited, we at the University of Delaware and Appalachian State University collaborated to respond to this long-standing professional need.

Purpose and Goals

Our primary purpose in planning the institute was to respond to the growing demand for training opportunities from institutions that were initiating or planning faculty development programs. Except for the annual one-day pre-conference workshops offered by the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD), few training opportunities are available to new faculty/instructional development professionals. Thus, our primary goal was to design and offer a very practical "survival" course in faculty development.

We wanted to expose participants to traditional programs and practices in professional, personal, and organizational development. We also wanted to present to these new practitioners our visions for the future of the field, so that they might have an appreciation for the complexity and depth of it. Our overarching goal was to focus on building foundations for future success within the context of each person's campus needs.

Philosophy

The institute was based on the following assumptions, which we shared with our participants in the first session:

- Learning occurs when new information is connected with old;
- Learning involves risk-taking;
- Learning is a shared responsibility;
- Learning requires respect;
- Learning requires us to reflect on our practice;
- Learning happens in the context of community, where the experience and expertise of all members is shared and valued.

Our strong commitment to creating a community of learners permeated the planning and implementation of the institute. To help create community among both faculty and participants, we included a three-hour team-building session on the first day. This session provided an opportunity to get acquainted, to build a high level of trust and confidence, and to take risks in a non-traditional learning setting.

Faculty

We identified faculty for the institute by surveying past directors and CORE members of POD and presenters at POD's pre-conference workshop for new developers. Each person was asked to identify colleagues who might be appropriate as institute faculty and who would work well in a collaborative, residential setting. We compiled a list of those who had been mentioned most often and interviewed these potential faculty about their philosophy, goals, essential content, teaching style, and availability for such an institute. Two colleagues, Marilla Svinicki and Ron Smith, were invited to participate as primary faculty to complement the styles, skills, and experience of the three planners. Several talented faculty from Appalachian State University volunteered additional sessions for the institute.

Participants

We designed the institute for faculty who were in their first three years as faculty developers or who were intending to initiate a program. Participants in the institute included 25 new practitioners from the United States and Canada. They represented diversity in race, gender, and type of institution—private, religiously affiliated, public, two-year, four-year, and doctoral institutions. They brought a wide range of perspectives from their experiences in instructional media, teaching, academic administration, faculty development, and graduate studies. This serendipitous variety created a mix of viewpoints that made the institute a truly rich and unique learning experience.

Content

Content for the institute was determined from a number of sources. Using a modified DACUM (*D*evelop *A* Curricul*UM*) model (Seibert & Mauser, 1979), we consulted the literature, new practitioners, and other colleagues. Beginning with our own knowledge, experiences and readings over a number of years, we established an initial content list. Then we conducted a paper survey of participants at the annual POD conference in fall 1989 and a series of structured telephone interviews with potential institute faculty and authors in faculty development literature. We examined several successful residential models for content and format, including the Kellogg Institute for Developmental Educators and the Canadian Potlatch Seminars. We also studied the content of syllabi from two graduate courses, one in faculty development and one in college teaching.

Several cycles of development, review and revision, and discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of various components led to the final curriculum for the institute. Within these cycles our priorities about content became more explicit. First, considering the developmental stage of our intended audience in their careers, we wanted to focus on practice rather than theory. Second, we wanted to be sure that we had adequate breadth, as well as depth, in the practice of personal, professional, and organizational development. Third, we wanted to build on the experiences and expertise of the various participants. Fourth, we wanted flexibility in order to meet the participants' needs. Fifth, we wanted to create an experience that would encourage participants' personal growth—in mind, body, and spirit. Thus, the final content of the institute focused on:

- understanding the role of faculty development and its influence on the organization;
- getting information from faculty and translating it into strategies;
- building support for faculty development;
- consulting with individuals and groups;
- providing feedback to faculty;
- looking at teaching: classroom observations, peer perspectives and students' viewpoints;
- designing and conducting learning activities for faculty;
- developing written materials: newsletters, handbooks, and flyers;
- evaluating faculty development programs;
- budgeting and funding programs and activities;
- thinking about the future of faculty development.

Teaching Methodology

Our teaching methods were driven by our desire to use what we knew about adult learning and model what we were teaching. We accommodated a variety of learning styles through active learning strategies such as short writing assignments, mini-lectures, interactive lectures, large and small group discussions, problem-solving tasks, role playing, case studies, printed resource materials, homework assignments, and readings. We provided formal and informal opportunities for participants to consult with us and to share experiences and materials with each other. Participants became involved in the instructional process by designing optional sessions and giving continuous feedback that resulted in revisions to both content and methods.

Effects on Participants

Results of the evaluation indicated that all the participants would recommend the institute to a colleague. In general, they liked the ideas, activities, and strategies that helped them to learn how to "do" faculty development. They liked the fact that they left with concrete plans and ideas for use on their own campuses and that they developed a network of colleagues to contact after they returned home. They also liked the collaborative learning environment and cited it as an important factor in their personal growth during the week.

A follow-up survey after four months showed that the effects of the institute were still present. Participants were networking with each other and still using the content that they had learned. Several new teaching centers and faculty development programs were established, and some institutions had begun internal or external searches for staff. One institute participant from a community college team reported that her program went from "just talk" to "full steam ahead" due to the positive learning experience that she and her team members had at the institute. After attending the institute, one of the other members of her team—a key administrator who reluctantly signed up but enthusiastically completed the institute—suddenly found the *raison d'etre*, resources, and budget for their program.

Effects on Faculty

As institute faculty, we were forced to frame what has become our life's work (a combined total of over 50 years) into language and activities that could communicate the essence of faculty development to people from other backgrounds. We learned from each other, not only about content and new twists on classic themes, but also about what it takes to trust other professionals we did not know well. It was a challenge to honor and adjust to each of our ways of knowing, being, and working. We were constantly asking ourselves what it is that we do. What are the theoretical bases for our actions? Can I be the bridge to help connect us without being a lightning rod? Can I delegate and retain my sense of responsibility and competence? The answer was, "Yes." With renewed respect for ourselves and each other, our confrontations and struggles led us through a fruitful journey in the company of candid and caring colleagues.

Some of the questions we struggled with before and during the institute were the same that all faculty who use collaborative teaching strategies must confront: Where and how much do we collaborate and arrange for collaboration among students? How much do we structure, focus explorations, challenge the knowns before moving to the unknowns? What process will work best for sharing our work? When and how do we clarify, evaluate, extend, and how much? How do we best assess self, peers, and group efforts? What process will drive individual and group accountability and feedback?

Future Directions

We plan to offer the institute again. We will implement several changes that our first group of graduates recommended, but we will retain those factors that we feel were the keys to our success:

- being intentional about developing a sense of community in which people could take risks;
- selecting faculty who had complementary skills and experiences;
- structuring the agenda to allow flexibility;

- using participant feedback beginning the first day;
- empowering participants to meet their objectives; and
- hearing participants and each other.

We also envision expanding future institutes into a second week to provide an advanced level of interaction, thinking, content, and renewal for experienced faculty developers.

Themes Across the Case Studies

The previous case studies were examined for underlying themes that might be useful to faculty developers who wish to improve their practices and/or develop similar educational experiences. Emerging from this examination were three themes: one dealing with content, another with methodology, and a third with development.

The first theme that emerged from the reflections of these teachers of faculty development involved content appropriate for their courses. These instructors found no paucity of topics in faculty development for either a semester-long course or a week-long intensive institute. On the contrary, the abundance of topics necessitated difficult decisions about what to include and what to exclude. In all three approaches, instructors wrestled with the decisions of how much theory and how much practice to include in their curriculum. Each resolved this tension with a different balance between theory and practice according to the perceived needs of the students and context. Further, the three instructors found three very different approaches to the content: one used the theme of metaphors in teaching; one emphasized theoretical and philosophical issues within academe; and one focused on tactics and strategies useful for practitioners.

The second theme that emerged from these case studies was related to the teaching methodologies used. Each of the teachers sought to "reflect the spirit" of the discipline by modeling effective teaching-learning strategies and accommodating different learning styles. This theme was particularly salient in the kinds of class activities and assignments given to students. In the institute, students were required to take part in short writing assignments, large and small group discussions, problem-solving tasks, and case studies. At Appalachian, students were required to participate in seminar discussion, present information, write synopses of books and articles, conduct research, and produce a paper of publishable quality. In Toronto, students were required to summarize readings, connect them to personal experience, contribute to class discussions and demonstrations, and respond in writing to the teacher's comments on their papers in a manner similar to responding to a journal reviewer's comments. Clearly, integrity and fidelity to the discipline were priorities for these teachers.

The third theme that emerged from these case studies involved professional growth and development within the teachers themselves. All three teachers reported that the process of developing and teaching the courses was lengthy and extremely challenging professionally. Their reflections abound with questions about what content should be included, what methodologies would be most effective, how the material should be approached and organized, what outcomes would be most important, what learning activities would be most meaningful for students, how students should be evaluated, what the role of the teacher is within the course, what the role of the course is within the institution, and so forth. These are the kinds of questions that most teachers ask when developing a course. However, because faculty development is a nascent field and the curriculum has not been circumscribed, the process of answering these questions brought about a professional growth not always available to teachers of other subjects or to faculty development practitioners.

It is apparent that the act of teaching about faculty development contributed to the growth of the instructors as teachers, as practitioners, and as scholars. They were forced to examine the literature in more depth and to organize the information in a coherent manner, giving them new insights into the gaps, strengths, and weaknesses of the field. They were forced to examine their own assumptions and philosophies, to articulate their own perspectives, and to put them into practice. Each teacher felt that although developing and teaching such a course was demanding, the challenge yielded great professional benefits and rewards.

Conclusion

These case studies demonstrate the richness and complexity of the body of knowledge and the variety of practices that comprise the field of faculty development. They also point to the need for more empirical research on faculty/instructional development efforts and related topics (see, for example, Bonwell & Eison, 1991). These reports provide evidence of the ongoing evolution of the professional field. As practitioners continue to define the theories, issues, activities, and methodologies that constitute faculty development in order to be able to share the field with others, clearer definitions emerge. It is hoped that the sharing of these training experiences will stimulate further reflection as we move toward more formal conceptual frameworks and models for our work.

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Inclusive Teaching: A Workshop On Cultural Diversity

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Although higher education has become more accessible for non-traditional students over the last two decades, it has not necessarily become friendlier. In fact, culturally diverse students frequently find that the most difficult thing about college is learning how to learn in the dominant U.S. way. This article presents ideas for a workshop designed to address the issue of cultural diversity among students. With a greater awareness of cultural differences, faculty can teach in more culturally sensitive ways.

Nevitt Sanford (1956) suggests that students learn best when they are both challenged and supported. I argue that students should be challenged by learning course content and new skills while they are supported by the classroom environment, teaching strategies that provide opportunities for them to learn in their preferred learning style, and content that includes the perspectives of people from their own ethnic, class, and gender groups.

Although many college faculty have traveled in other countries and although many college classrooms contain a diversity of students, most college faculty know little about the effects of culture or about communicating across cultures. Students in our colleges and universities come from increasingly diverse cultural backgrounds. Because culture is ingrained in every aspect of human life from what we consider edible to how close we stand to one another in conversation to how we construct arguments, it is important for faculty to become more knowledgeable about culture and ways to communicate across cultural differences.

American college classrooms rely on the lecture as the preferred method of teaching. Students are universally evaluated as individuals rather than as members of groups. Our colleges and universities themselves are grounded in the dominant U.S. culture built upon notions of individual responsibility, hard work, and unemotional objectivity.

What follows is a design for a workshop in which faculty become more aware of the role of culture in human life, become more aware of the values of the dominant U.S. culture, and acquire some basic information about theories of cultural variability. The workshop concludes with exercises in which the faculty apply this information to improve their teaching.

Setting Workshop Goals

The session described here is really a consciousness-raising workshop designed to acquaint faculty with information on culture and then have them apply that information to their own teaching. Faculty will need background information on what a culturally sensitive perspective is, awareness of the cultural values of their institution (dominant U.S. values), and background information on theories of cultural variability. With this information in hand, the participants will be able to generate ways in which they can alter their teaching so that it is more sensitive to the cultural differences of their students.

Opening the Workshop

To get faculty thinking about culture and also identifying their own cultural background, the facilitator can ask workshop participants to introduce themselves in dyads by sharing information about their cultural backgrounds. A show of hands for the most common countries of origin in each of the broad sub-groups of population in the U.S. (African American, European American, Asian American, Hispanic American, and Native American) will give the participants a visual sense of the cultural composition of the group.

Next, the facilitator can use an overhead or handouts to show the percentages represented by each of the above groups in the current U.S. population, the makeup of the U.S. population in 1790, and changes in immigration patterns from 1790 to the present.[1] The participants then have some sense of how the ethnicity of the United States has changed over the years and how representative they are of the distribution within the overall population.

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[1] These statistics are readily available in the latest documents from the U.S. Bureau of the Census.

Developing a Culturally Sensitive Perspective

A culturally sensitive communication perspective is really thoughtful communication with other persons as individuals. Of course, people often do not communicate thoughtfully, but they know how to do it if they must. The difficult part of culturally sensitive communication is for persons to know when their own cultural values/assumptions interfere with their understanding of the message coming from the culturally different other.

People who have developed a culturally sensitive perspective:

- know their own cultural assumptions;
- avoid value judgments about culture in others;
- respect others' differences;
- ask explicit questions;
- listen actively until the other person finishes;
- allow extra time in communication;
- negotiate culture individually.

The first step in developing cultural awareness is for individuals to become aware of the values and assumptions of their own culture. In this case, because of the strong influence of dominant U.S. cultural values in U.S. college classrooms, the workshop should begin by making conscious the dominant U.S. cultural values. In dyads participants can identify the assumptions underlying common proverbs and quotations drawn from U.S. literature and rhetoric. In the large group the dyads can read aloud their quotation/proverb and identify the cultural values/assumptions on which it is based. At the end of the sharing, the list participants have generated can be compared with a list of dominant U.S. cultural values adapted from Stewart and Bennett (1991):

- It is important to be doing something;
- Money and things are important;
- It is possible and desirable to control—the environment, one's life etc.;
- Hard work is important;
- The individual is important;
- Time is a linear and valued commodity.

In a follow-up exercise, participants can form small groups of three to six participants and list ways in which their institutions exemplify the dominant U.S. values. Participants should be encouraged to cover as many aspects of the institution as possible including such areas as financial aid, student disciplinary policies, institutional communication with students, general education requirements, classroom teaching strategies, and grading.

A general discussion in the large group will generate a rich picture of the values and assumptions on which U.S. higher education is based.

Explaining Theories of Cultural Variability

Participants now should have a heightened awareness of their own and the dominant U.S. cultural values. At this point they require some grounding in theories of cultural variability. Participants need to understand that people from other cultures are different in critical ways that are more significant than dress or diet. Many theorists have described the ways in which people relate to each other within broad cultural groups that differ from people in other broad cultural groups. Two theories that are useful here are drawn from the work of Hall (1976) and Triandis, Brislin, and Hui (1988).

Hall (1976) suggests that cultures can be placed on a continuum from high to low context. In terms of communication, Hall's theory suggests that people from low context cultures convey the message in the words of the communication. People in high context cultures convey the message through the setting and nonverbal cues. Females in the U.S. and people from communities that retain a strong ethnic identity tend to be more high context than the dominant U.S. culture. This difference means that students from these groups will pay as much attention to nonverbal communication and the setting as to the words of the communication.

Triandis, Brislin and Hui (1988) suggest that cultures can be placed on an individualism/collectivism continuum. The dominant U.S. culture tends toward the individualism pole of the continuum, while females and many ethnic-identified groups in the U.S. tend toward the collectivism pole of the continuum. The following is an adaptation of the authors' collectivist culture characteristics:

- There is no distinction between group and personal goals;
- The self is defined as part of a group, e.g., daughter, part of a clan;
- Individuals assume that if they know the group, they already know the individual;
- The person behaves the way the group expects so as not to bring shame on the group;
- Often the family name comes before the personal name;
- People are very powerfully involved in a very few groups;
- Individuals care a great deal about events that take place within the group, e.g., weddings;
- Individuals are most comfortable with vertical relationships, e.g., mother/daughter, not peer/peer;
- There is competition among groups but not within groups;

- Individuals value harmony, face saving, filial piety, modesty, moderation, thrift;
- Rewards are distributed equally among group members;
- Status is ascribed by age, sex, family name, birth place, place of residence;
- There is a high level of support within the group;
- There is a high level of suspicion toward the outgroup.

To begin to get a concrete sense of differences in values, participants need to connect these two theories of cultural variability with the U.S. dominant culture values.

Comparing U.S. Values with Collectivist/High Context Values

To begin the comparison, the facilitator can ask dyads to rewrite their U.S. proverb used in the earlier exercise from a high context or collectivist culture viewpoint. The dyads can share the rewrites with the large group. Another way to accomplish the same goal is for the facilitator to take proverbs and quotations from other cultures and ask participants to identify the assumptions and values upon which they are based.

Creating an Inclusive Classroom

By now, participants should begin to sense that some of the ways in which they teach grow directly out of the cultural assumptions of the dominant U.S. culture and may make learning more difficult or, at least, uncomfortable for students who come from high context or collectivist cultures. For example, because collectivist students are likely to feel uncomfortable with the dominant U.S. emphasis on the individual, they may be more comfortable learning in groups and even being graded as a member of a group.

The next exercise connects participants' cross-cultural knowledge with teaching in culturally diverse classrooms. Here the assumption is that virtually all college classrooms have students who are more comfortable learning in ways that would be comfortable for people from high context or collectivist cultures.[2] Therefore, participants need to begin to think about ways to create inclusive classrooms. The facilitator can divide participants into groups of three to six and ask them to design activities that would make their classrooms more comfortable for students from high context or collectivist cultures.

Participants can be jogged in their thinking by asking them to create activities for the first day of class, out-of-class homework assignments, in-class work, examinations, and the syllabus. As participants share the ideas in the large group, they generate a list of culturally sensitive teaching techniques.

Applying Cultural Knowledge

The participants now should have enough information about cross-cultural differences to work through some of the serious issues that emerge when they consider culture and the classroom. One way to get participants to think about the issues is to provide them with case studies that illustrate complications resulting from differences in cultural values among students, between students and the institution, between students and the particular teaching technique. There are, of course, no easy solutions to the cases. The central issue is to what extent should the institution adjust to the cultural assumptions of the students and to what extent should the institution teach the culturally different students to perform in the manner expected by the dominant U.S. culture. To put it another way, to what extent are we obligated to prepare our diverse students to adapt to, blend into, the dominant U.S. culture. Two sample cases (see Appendix) are provided at the conclusion of this article for those who would like to use cases as catalysts for such discussion.

Conclusion

Because college and university students come from increasingly diverse cultures, it is important for faculty to become aware of the possible effects of culture on all aspects of student learning. Faculty can then provide variety in the teaching and learning environment. Variety, of course, means that any individual student will sometimes find the activities a match for his/her cultural preference and sometimes will need to become more adept at activities that are not a match. So, for example, some examinations might be taken on an individual basis while others are group projects with all group participants earning the same grade. In this way the teaching will reflect an inclusiveness that allows students, regardless of cultural background, to feel both comfortable and challenged.

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[2] I have given cultural awareness workshops for many college and university faculty. After I have described high and low context cultures and collectivist/individualist cultures, I am inevitably asked if these variables apply to U.S. females. The answer, of course, is that they do. See especially Belenky, Clinchy, Golberger and Tarule (1986) and Gilligan (1982).

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Appendix

The Case of the Irate Students

Professor B. Ross recently attended a conference on multicultural education. As a result of the conference, she has designed a number of collaborative learning assignments. Additionally, she requires that the students take three quizzes in which each student gets the average score of the entire group for a grade instead of a score based on individual performance. All has worked very well until close to the end of the term. Two of Dr. Ross' best students were in groups in which the average score on the quizzes was well below these students' usual work. They are concerned that the three group quiz grades will lower their grade for the term.

What should Dr. Ross tell the two students? What issues are involved?

The Case of the Silent Students

Professor John Winthrop teaches Introduction to Management. He has a number of Japanese-American students in his class this term. Professor Winthrop includes class participation as 20% of the final grade in the course. He is concerned because none of the Japanese-American students participate in class discussions. If he includes the 20% for class participation in figuring the final grades for his Japanese-American students, they will earn B's in the course, even though they have earned A's on all of their exams and papers.

What should Professor Winthrop do? What are the issues involved?

Building Motivation and Cognition Research Into Workshops on Lecturing

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This article describes a faculty development workshop in which participants learn to improve their lectures by using motivation and cognition strategies. It offers a concrete, practitioner-oriented presentation of the research base, format, process, materials, outcomes, and follow-up activities for the workshop.

Recent research about the relationships among student motivational states, student cognitive strategies and academic performance (McKeachie, Pintrich, Lin & Smith, 1986; Pintrich, 1989; Pintrich & Garcia, 1991; Pintrich & Schrauben, in press), offers a strong foundation for the study of effective lecturing. Instructional specialists have responded to such research by identifying specific related effective lecturing strategies (Brophy, 1987; Forsyth & McMillan, 1991; Johnson, Eison, Abbott, Meiss, Moran, Gorgan, Pasternack, Zaramba, and McKeachie, 1991; Keller, 1983; Svinicki, 1991; Weinstein & Mayer, 1986). This paper describes a faculty workshop in which participants learn to improve their lectures by using motivation and cognition strategies. The participants examine the connections between student motivation, cognition and effective lecturing strategies, observe selected motivation and cognition strategies in a "live" mini-lecture, and report, discuss, and evaluate their observations.

Connecting Motivation, Cognition & Lecturing

The workshop begins with a brief discussion of the following lecture plan criterion: *Anything included in your lecture plan must be something you are personally convinced will promote either student motivation and/or effective cognition.* The workshop facilitator introduces the concepts of motivation and cognition and presents examples of specific strategies designed to promote student motivation and cognition.

Motivation

It works well to present the motivation concepts and strategies first because it is easier for most participants to understand and identify with them. *Motivation* is defined as a concept used to describe the forces acting on or within an individual to initiate, direct, sustain, intensify, or stop behavior. The facilitator should make it clear to participants that to feel motivated, students must perceive a need-meeting or goal-attainment "value" in a learning experience and must have the "expectation" that they can perform related learning tasks successfully with reasonable effort. What happens in the lecture must provide students with answers to the questions, "Why should they learn this?" and "Can they learn this?"(McKeachie, Pintrich, Lin, Smith, 1986; McMillan & Forsyth, 1991; Vroom, 1964).

The facilitator offers Keller's (1983, 1984) four categories to classify strategies instructors can use to promote student motivation. When first presenting these, the facilitator should provide at least one concrete example for each category:

1. ***Attention strategies*** are used when there is an unexpected or perceptually inconsistent event or a gap between a given and a desired state of knowledge.
   Example: Use novel anecdotes, demonstrations, questions, metaphors, controversies.
2. ***Relevance strategies*** are used when learners perceive that important personal needs and goals are being met in the learning situation.
   Example: Use examples to demonstrate how content will help students in courses and careers.
3. ***Confidence strategies*** are used when students perceive self-efficacy and internal control of causes attributed to performance.
   Example: Provide opportunities for students to figure out examples or solutions on their own to help students connect success to personal effort and ability.

4. ***Satisfaction strategies*** are used when valued intrinsic or extrinsic outcomes or feedback appropriately follow performance.
   Example: Use verbal praise and informative feedback more often than formal evaluation.

Cognition

After the categories of motivation strategies have been presented, the facilitator introduces cognition concepts and strategies. *Cognition* is defined as the activity or process of knowing or learning, including the acquisition, meaningful organization, and remembering of information for future retrieval and utilization. Promoting effective student cognition requires that the lecture provide students with answers to the question, "How can they learn this?" (Weinstein & Underwood, 1985). The facilitator should make it clear to participants that this part of the lecture process is their chance to help students actually learn how to learn. Although faculty members are expert learners who regularly use a wide range of effective and efficient cognitive strategies, they often use these strategies unconsciously with great speed. Thus, students may not readily "see" how to learn until faculty: 1) become more aware of how they themselves learn, and 2) make these cognitive strategies accessible to the students by modeling them, highlighting and encouraging their use, and making their use external and explicit by slowing down and thinking out loud (Whimbey & Lochhead, 1991).

The facilitator presents Weinstein and Mayer's (1986) four categories as the basis for classification and discussion of cognition strategies. When first presenting these, the facilitator should provide at least one concrete example strategy for each category:

1. ***Rehearsal strategies*** are used when learners actively repeat, recite or name presented items.
   Example: Underlining text and verbatim note-taking.
2. ***Elaboration strategies*** are used when learners extend or add to material to make it more memorable, especially by forming associations between new material and existing knowledge.
   Example: Generative Note-taking—adding some reflections to verbatim notes on how new material relates to existing knowledge, familiar situations, or possible future applications.
3. ***Organization strategies*** are used when learners actively construct internal connections among ideas by arranging material according to some logical system for representing relationships.
   Example: Diagramming or flowcharting.

4. ***Metacognition strategies*** are used when students plan, monitor, and regulate their learning and use of cognitive strategies.
   Example: Generating questions to be answered during learning.

The workshop facilitator reviews the information connecting motivation, cognition, and effective lecturing and distributes a summary handout to all participants at this time for reference during the later phases of the workshop. At this point, the facilitator also gives each participant two additional handouts—one containing lists of specific motivation strategies for each category, and the other containing lists of specific cognition strategies for each category (see Appendix). Any questions participants have about the meaning of any of the strategies listed are addressed at this point in the workshop.

Preparing for and Conducting the Live Mini-Lecture

In the second part of the workshop, a confederate faculty member presents a 15-20 minute mini-lecture to the participants, who try to identify motivation and/or cognition strategies used by the lecturer.

Role of the Confederate Lecturer

It is highly motivating when the workshop facilitator invites a professor from the same department or college as the workshop participants to serve as the guest lecturer. It is important that the guest lecturer also be an experienced professor and clearly recognized among peers as an excellent instructor. Such lecturers will be more effective if they already use or can easily use many of the specific motivation and cognition strategies identified on the lists.

It may be a challenge to motivate the participation of the confederate professor. From the perspective of intrinsic motivation, the facilitator should seek a professor who meets the above conditions and is also a "kindred spirit" in terms of a desire to work continually to improve the quality of his or her teaching. Such a person is already accustomed to taking risks in order to improve teaching effectiveness. From the extrinsic perspective, an effective motivational technique is for the facilitator to propose to the target confederate that the two of them team up to submit a proposal to repeat the workshop as a tutorial for new assistant professors at the next national or regional meeting of the confederate's professional association.

It is very important that such guest lecturers understand from the beginning that they are being asked to "bare their souls" in front of their colleagues and that participants will be encouraged to be critical in their observations. It is the responsibility of the workshop facilitator to feel completely satisfied that the guest lecturer will feel comfortable about this process and continue to view the experience as valuable and fun.

The facilitator and the guest lecturer work together well in advance to prepare for the mini-lecture. The facilitator should encourage the lecturer to select a topic that represents common knowledge for most of the participants. In this way, the participants can focus on incorporating motivation and cognition strategies into the presentation and not be distracted by concerns about content.

The facilitator and lecturer should also discuss the ways in which specific motivation and cognition strategies are to be used during the presentation. In this way, the facilitator can be sure that the lecturer: 1) understands how to use the selected strategies; 2) includes at least one or two strategies from each motivation and cognition category; and 3) balances the use of strategies across categories. These conditions provide rich opportunities for participants to make both descriptive and critical observations about what strategies were used as well as what strategies were not used and how they might have been used effectively.

Role of the Workshop Participants

In this second stage of the workshop, participants observe the "live" effort to improve a lecture using the motivational and cognitive strategies introduced in the first segment of the workshop. The facilitator assigns each participant a specific category of either motivation or cognition strategies. Participants use the lists of strategies distributed earlier to guide observation of the lecturer's use of specific strategies in that category. The facilitator asks the participants to make notes concerning specific strategies used (or not used) effectively (or not effectively) by the lecturer. In this way, participants feel encouraged to make not only descriptive but also critical observations about the lecturer's behaviors. Because there are only eight possible categories, there are usually multiple observers of strategies in each category.

Reporting and Discussing Participant Observations and Evaluations

In the third phase of the workshop, participants report their observations. The facilitator records these on a grid projected on a large screen and distributes paper copies of the grid to participants so they can make their own observations from the reports. The grid has eight boxes for recording observations about strategies used from each of the motivation and cognition categories. With multiple observers in each category of strategies, the accuracy and completeness of each group's observations are available for other groups to record and reflect upon.

During the reporting phase, several very interesting things happen. First, the variety of observations leads to some interesting and insightful evaluative discussions of the effectiveness of the use of specific strategies as well as the ways in which unused strategies might have been effectively employed. Negative feedback, if desired, usually needs to be elicited by the facilitator and, of course, handled with care. Second, participants begin to interview the guest lecturer regarding why certain strategies were used in certain ways and why others were not used. The lecturer's opinions and judgments are important and valued by participants. Third, participants make comparisons between the teaching behaviors of the guest lecturer and the workshop facilitator, expressing further insights into the effective use of motivation and cognition strategies. Fourth, participants begin to make explicit references to their own courses and their own lecturing, thinking about applying what they have observed and asking for advice about what they consider to be their unique situations.

Conclusion

Based on both written and oral feedback, the following seven items represent the features of this workshop that participants report as most useful to them: 1) a new perspective on lecturing based on motivation and cognition concepts; 2) knowledge of four categories of motivation strategies and four categories of cognition strategies; 3) handouts with lists of specific motivation and cognition strategies for each category; 4) a grid on which they have recorded extensive observations of motivation and cognition strategies used to improve a lecture; 5) vivid images of the guest lecturer and the workshop facilitator utilizing motivation and cognition strategies in both lecture and discussion formats with varying degrees of effectiveness; 6) visions of themselves applying motivation and cognition strategies in their own lectures; and 7) new common terminology and experiences for sharing and networking.

An important instructional development implication of this workshop is that it provides a productive foundation for follow-up activities. For example, interested participants may wish to form pairs to apply, observe, and discuss experimentation (in their own classes) with strategies learned in this workshop. One natural follow-up to this activity is another workshop/seminar devoted to sharing and evaluating the experiences of these pairs. Intensive one-on-one consulting with professors based on classroom observations and feedback regarding applications of selected strategies can be most productive. Clearly, a wide range of follow-up activities can be designed to build upon the foundations provided in this initial workshop.

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Appendix

Motivation Strategies*

ATTENTION

____ 1. Use novel anecdotes, demonstrations, questions, metaphors, or controversies.

____ 2. Inject personal, emotional element into intellectual material.

____ 3. Expand on familiar material with doses of the unfamiliar and unexpected.

____ 4. Pose a problem or issue and ask students for ideas about how to resolve it.

____ 5. Use analogies to make the strange familiar and the familiar strange.

____ 6. Project intensity and enthusiasm.

____ 7. Induce dissonance or cognitive conflict.

RELEVANCE

____ 1. Use examples based on current student interests.

____ 2. Use examples of how content will help students in courses and careers.

____ 3. Explain why course is offered or required.

____ 4. Use personal experiences or case studies to demonstrate relevance.

____ 5. Explain why the content is important to you.

____ 6. Call attention to the instrumental values of academic activities.

CONFIDENCE

____ 1. Sequence content from simple to more complex.

____ 2. Help students connect success to personal effort and ability by providing opportunities for them to figure out examples or solutions on their own.

____ 3. Help students connect success to personal effort and ability using feedback such as, "If you continue practicing this, you can really master it."

____ 4. Use goals and content organizers to help students see the main parts of new material and how they fit together.
____ 5. Check for student understanding and find out what and how they need something clarified before going on.
____ 6. Model and encourage effective use of "how to learn" (cognitive) strategies.
____ 7. Maintain appropriate levels of difficulty and challenge.
____ 8. Allow opportunities for students to make choices and decisions in the learning process

SATISFACTION

____ 1. Use verbal praise and informative feedback more than formal evaluation.
____ 2. Use positive feedback immediately following performance.
____ 3. Use corrective feedback just before the next application.
____ 4. Relate negative feedback clearly to performance and *not* the person.
____ 5. Praise performance *and* effort.
____ 6. Clarify performance expectations for each grade and adhere to them.
____ 7. Teach student goal-setting, self-appraisal and self-reinforcement.

*Cognition Strategies***

[In teaching, we role model these and also encourage students to use them independently]

REHEARSAL

____ 1. Repeating.
____ 2. Reciting.
____ 3. Taking notes verbatim in class.
____ 4. Shadowing - saying material aloud while writing or reading it.
____ 5. Underlining text.
____ 6. Copying notes.

ELABORATION

____ 1. Presenting similarities and differences between new material and existing knowledge (comperative organizer).

____ 2. Summarizing.

____ 3. Paraphrasing.

____ 4. Adding some reflections to verbatim notes on how new material relates to existing knowledge, familiar situations, or possible future applications (generative note-taking).

____ 5. Questioning and explaining.

____ 6. Using analogies and imagery.

____ 7. Using mnemonic key words.

ORGANIZATION

____ 1. Presenting a set of broad concepts to help students organize and relate main parts of forthcoming material (expository organizer).

____ 2. Outlining.

____ 3. Clustering and classifying.

____ 4. Presenting key concepts in ovals and lines connecting the ovals with linking words along lines indicating relationships among concepts (concept mapping).

____ 5. Diagramming or flowcharting.

METACOGNITION

Planning

____ 1. Pre-study skimming to identify main points and general structure of material.

____ 2. Setting learning goals to be achieved.

____ 3. Generating questions to be answered during learning.

Monitoring

____ 4. Monitoring comprehension or self-testing.

____ 5. Monitoring attention during study.

____ 6. Making adaptations during test-taking.

Regulating

____ 7. Reviewing unmastered material and self-correction.

____ 8. Adjusting rate of studying or coverage of material according to difficulty.

____ 9. Using self-reinforcement.

____10. Changing cognitive strategies to maximize meaningful learning.

*Adapted from Brophy, J. (1987). Synthesis of research on strategies for motivating students to learn. *Educational Leadership. 45* (2), 41-48; Cashin, W. (1979). *IDEA Paper No. 1: Motivating students.* Kansas State University: Center for Faculty Evaluation & Development; and Keller, J. M. (1983). Motivational design of instruction. In C.M. Reigeluth (Ed.), *Instructional design theories and models* (pp.383-434). Hillsdale NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

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Using Cases about Teaching for Faculty Development

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Stories about dilemmas faced by learners and teachers can serve as the focal point for faculty development workshops, stimulating faculty members, in an engaging and powerful way, to reflect on their work with students. The authors offer suggestions for constructing or acquiring cases and describe strategies for formatting and facilitating case discussion workshops.

As faculty developers, we often find ourselves in classrooms watching complex, fascinating stories about teaching and learning unfold. Many years ago, Roland Christensen of the Harvard Business School found that by capturing and retelling these stories on paper (Christensen & Hansen, 1987), he could stimulate both beginning and experienced faculty members to develop new insights into their teaching of business administration. What we have learned from him is that by turning our own classroom observations and the experiences of faculty with whom we work into grist for discussion in faculty development workshops, we can offer teachers in varied disciplines and settings an engaging and powerful way to reflect on their work with students. Case-based workshops are appropriate for many different learning goals. They can be used to introduce new educational concepts, provoke attitude change, provide practice in solving classroom problems, and stimulate the desire to acquire new skills.

Teaching cases convey concrete classroom situations intended to invoke diverse responses. For example, a case available from the Harvard Business School describes the dilemma of a young graduate student who is confronted by a student in class while teaching a small discussion section in a 90-student Shakespeare course. Rather than give his assigned report, the student criticizes the instructor's classroom approach and challenges her authority to control class discussion. She finds herself standing at the board facing what she perceives to be a hostile student who has not prepared for discussion and wondering how to handle this disruption and get back to the content of the course, the overthrow of Richard the III.

As a faculty development exercise, the discussion of a teaching case has several positive features. First, cases encourage the exploration of the process of teaching in context, rather than as a set of de-contextualized skills. In the discussion of teaching cases, faculty members explore the interactions of teachers, students, and content in a specific setting, and consider how these factors combine to foster or diminish learning. A richly detailed case stimulates minute-by-minute analysis of a teaching and learning encounter while engaging participants empathically in the dilemma faced by the teacher or students. The discussion simulates the experience of reflecting-in-action, an important feature of professional behavior defined by Donald Schön (1987) as the ability to act, analyze that action, note any unexpected consequences, and experiment with other actions without missing a beat. Workshops in which teaching cases are discussed can be helpful in promoting increased awareness of the multiple features of a teaching situation and in developing skills in reflection-in-action.

Second, in discussing a teaching case with colleagues, faculty members are exposed to multiple perspectives and interpretations. A participant is often surprised to find that his or her analysis of the situation or recommendation for action is not widely shared. Assertions about learning and the role of the teacher, about classroom control and content authority, about student needs and motivations are frequently challenged—and sometimes changed. In the process of discussing the case, a faculty member may realize the need to re-examine assumptions, attitudes, and actions that have characterized his or her teaching in the past.

Third, in seeking to resolve the educational dilemmas presented in a case and in finding preconceptions dislodged, faculty members may be stimulated to learn more about the conceptual structures and tactical issues of teaching. Case discussion may increase faculty members' interest in improving their own teaching. The discussion of a teaching case can be followed by additional opportunities for teaching improvement such as skill-building exercises, brief lectures on educational concepts and strategies, resources for personal study, observations of other teachers, or further discussion with colleagues.

Finally, by formatting a faculty development workshop around a case and its discussion, we can model an active approach to learning and demonstrate the skills needed for case-based instruction and learner involvement. A case-based workshop follows the experiential learning cycle described by Kolb (1984). Participants move from the concrete experience presented in the case through reflective discussion to the generation of conceptual understanding and experimentation with new applications. In short, participation in the discussion of a teaching case mirrors the active learning that we encourage faculty members to design into their own courses.

Creating and Collecting Cases

Teaching cases grow out of situations that present teachers with fundamental and complex questions, ones that have no obvious or definitive answers and that invoke broad themes of content treatment, teacher-student relationship, and classroom behavior. A good case is engaging. It involves the faculty member in a specific dilemma and prompts intense reflection on issues underlying the event. Cases can range from concise vignettes to elaborate narratives with extensive supporting documentation. However long it is, a case needs to contain enough detail to support varied interpretations and to keep the analysis and recommendations grounded in particulars. For faculty development workshops, with their limited call on participants' time, short cases of one to five pages are most manageable.

Like other stories, a case has a plot, an animating conflict between people, perspectives, purposes, and values that call for action by a main character. It offers one or more internal perspectives with which participants can identify and from which they can view the critical features of the situation in addition to seeing them in light of their own professional and personal background. Experiencing the situation from the viewpoint, and through the senses, of the teacher and students involved is basic to productive case discussion. Typically, cases include at least broad strokes of characterization; often, they contain actual dialogue as well. A telling detail often serves as the linchpin of an engaging discussion.

Stories that might be transformed into faculty development cases abound in colleges and universities. Kleinfeld (1990) suggests several questions for testing whether a story's central problem will make good grist for case discussion:

- Does it lack a single right answer or an obvious solution?
- Does it have multiple dimensions, e.g. pedagogical, interpersonal, ethical?
- Can it be analyzed through different frames of reference?

- Would faculty identify or empathize with the teacher?
- Is it engaging on an emotional as well as an intellectual level?
- Does it exemplify a fundamental problem that confronts many teachers?

If the story seems promising by these criteria, it is worth trying one's hand at turning it into a case. Doing so may simply mean writing up one's own observation. A more elaborate treatment, or a second-hand story, may require interviewing one or more of those involved in the situation. A straightforward narrative judiciously embellished with brief quotations and key details usually works best.

With video technology becoming ever more common, case writers are experimenting with other means of storytelling. For example, the Derek Bok Center for Teaching and Learning at Harvard University has developed a series of trigger tapes to stimulate discussion about diversity in the classroom. In fact, though the written text is the traditional case form, any means of conveying the situation, from oral delivery with its ancient roots in storytelling to the most advanced interactive computer program, can serve the purpose. It is the fact of its being a story that defines a case rather than its format. Thus, anyone who can observe classes and talk with faculty members has the opportunity to create teaching cases.

For those who prefer to try using cases for faculty development before investing effort in creating them, teaching cases are available from various sources. The largest inventory has been developed by Christensen and his associates at the Harvard Business School (1987). Their cases and teaching notes are distributed by the School's Publishing Division, both singly and in book form. A few similar cases can be ordered from the Case Program at Harvard's Kennedy School of Government. Rita Silverman and William Welty of the Center for Case Studies in Teacher Education at Pace University have begun to develop a series of case studies for use in preservice and inservice teacher education. A few additional cases with discussion of their uses have been included in this volume. Currently Pat Hutchings, director of the American Association for Higher Education's Teaching Initiative, is conducting a project to develop cases about college teaching and learning. Interest in using cases for teacher education, faculty development, and higher education in general has been burgeoning in the last several years, and new cases should become increasingly available.

Setting Up Case-Based Workshops

Two discussion formats are particularly useful for case-based workshops: case method discussion and problem-based learning. In both of these formats, a case or story provides the stimulus for discussants to acquire new concepts and develop skills in using those concepts to analyze and solve meaningful problems. In case-based workshops, the case is more than an illustration of a concept or skill. The case serves as a vehicle for stimulating new learning and is selected for the issues that it might provoke participants to explore both on their own and through discussion with peers. *The case serves to initiate and organize the learning process.*

Case-based workshops have the advantage of involving everyone in interactive problem solving. Discussion is learner-directed rather than teacher-directed, and most faculty members find it difficult to remain uninvolved as the teaching dilemma unfolds.

Both case discussion formats have logistical implications. In the case-method format developed by the Harvard Business School (Christensen & Hansen, 1987), participants prepare individually for a large-group discussion of the educational dilemmas and possible solutions. This type of case discussion is most effective when participants have read and analyzed the case prior to the workshop. When such advanced preparation is not possible, time can be allotted during the workshop for individual reading and analysis.

The facilitator usually begins a case-method discussion by asking two participants who might advocate very different views of the case to provide an initial analysis of the teaching problems. The lead-off discussants are given a few minutes to collect their thoughts while the facilitator reiterates the goals of the workshop or suggests relationships between this workshop and other faculty development opportunities. This opening gambit usually produces a plethora of hands, and the discussion is underway. An hour is generally sufficient for the discussion itself, but it can expand to fill whatever time is available. The workshop facilitator then stops the discussion of the case itself and invites participants to reflect on the teaching skills he or she has used. The final ten minutes of such a workshop might include a synthesis by the facilitator of the lessons learned (a) from the case and (b) about leading case-method discussions.

In a problem-based learning format (Wilkerson & Feletti, 1989) learners encounter a case "cold," without preparation, and work in small groups, with or without a facilitator present, to develop and test hypotheses about the nature of the teaching dilemma and possible solutions. Additional details of the case are disclosed as the discussion advances. The length of the case and the goals of the workshop determine the most appropriate timing for each section of the case. Because the case has not been studied in advance of the workshop, participants must draw heavily on previous knowledge and experience. When these are insufficient to explain the phenomena at hand or to produce an acceptable solution, participants are encouraged to set individual or group learning goals for independent study.

The small groups come together during the final portion of the workshop to compare results and reflect on the process of facilitating problem-based discussions. Because the case is intended to stimulate a desire to know more about teaching and learning, it is most effectively utilized when two or more workshop sessions are scheduled with time in between for self-study. When such scheduling is not feasible, the facilitator may choose to elaborate on teaching issues raised during the discussion.

The choice of format will dictate the type of space required. Large group case-method sessions work best when participants can directly engage one another in face-to-face discussion. Lecture halls with fixed seating tend to encourage more limited discussion between the facilitator and one participant. Large boards or several flip charts are essential for recording the progress of discussion. In problem-based learning, space is necessary for several groups of 6 to 8 participants to work concurrently. Each group needs a chart or board to record group decisions and questions for further study.

Case-based workshops require that faculty participants talk to one another. Name-tags written for view across the room or large place cards facilitate discussion among participants as does the use of an introductory exercise in which participants have a chance to meet one another.

Facilitating Case Discussions

Facilitating the discussion of cases in either a large group or a small group requires a skillful balance of guiding and following, of directing and listening. A large group, like a symphony orchestra, will need more frequent direction and coordination. In a small group, facilitation is more akin to the leading of a chamber music group in which the leader is also a player who guides through more subtle indications. The choice of discussion format and group size will suggest the most appropriate use of the following skills by the facilitator.

Setting Clear Expectations

Participants need to understand the nature of the session and what is expected of them. The facilitator should begin with a clear setting of expectations. What are the overall goals for the session? What are the rules for participation? It is important to set up a supportive atmosphere in which participants can risk sharing incomplete or incorrect ideas without fear of ridicule. McCormack and Kahn (1982) compare discussion to a barn raising in which each person's contribution, no matter how small, is important.

Clearly formed, comprehensive answers by one person may not move the group toward a finished barn any more effectively than will cooperative construction of the major points. Setting this tone in the first minutes of the session is essential to stimulating participation.

Managing Time

In addition to clarifying expectations, the facilitator is responsible for managing time effectively. This task is much harder in a case-based workshop than it is in more traditional lecture and discussion sessions. A lively, exciting discussion can be difficult to end. With a good case, there is always more to discuss than there is time! Keeping Kolb's (1984) model of experiential learning in mind, learning from an experience (here the case) may not be consolidated without sufficient time for moving beyond the specifics of the case to the formation of new concepts and principles that can be used to guide future action. The last fifteen minutes of a case-based workshop should be used to synthesize and elaborate on the ideas raised during discussion of the case. Summaries provide an opportunity to review what has been accomplished, to add essential points that have not been considered, or to provoke additional study of questions that remain unanswered. The facilitator can provide the summary or guide the group in generating one for itself. In either case, a discussion should never fade away. It should end purposefully within the constraints of the time allowed. It should look back over the discussion and forward into opportunities for the application and testing of new ideas.

Asking and Encouraging Questions

Questions are the major tools for building discussion, questions asked by participants of one another and to the facilitator and questions asked by the facilitator (Boehrer & Linsky, 1990). Open-ended questions (e.g., "What do you think is going on here?"; "What would you do?") are useful for encouraging discussion, while closed questions (e.g., "What do we know about the learners in this setting?") are useful for clarifying the facts of the case. A case discussion leader uses a mix of both.

In planning for a case discussion, the facilitator should consider the types of questions that might be helpful in accomplishing the objectives of the workshop. For example, if the faculty participants are expected to develop skills in reasoning through a teaching dilemma, the facilitator might plan to include and encourage the following types of questions:

- Asking for essential details of the case, e.g., "What are the facts?"
- Asking for a commitment, e.g., "What do you think is going on?"

- Probing for supporting evidence, e.g., "Why do you think that confronting the student would be the best approach?"
- Exploring misunderstandings or faulty reasoning, e.g., "Does everyone agree?"
- Forming relationships or generalizations, e.g., "How would your recommendations change if this were a math rather than a history course?"
- Encouraging curiosity, e.g., "How might you explain the unusual reaction of the female student in the class?"
- Exploring attitudes, e.g., "How does the learner view the situation?"

One of the most difficult balancing acts demanded of the effective group facilitator is the ability to ask just the right question at just the right time while encouraging participants to direct the discussion through their own questions.

Listening

A counterpoint to asking effective questions is the use of silence. Research confirms the average time that teachers wait between asking a question and calling on someone, rephrasing the question, or answering it themselves, is one second. In a review of research in this area, Tobin (1987) illustrated that extending the period of silence following a question to three seconds can improve the quality, quantity and length of students' responses.

The effective discussion leader spends more time listening than talking. This type of active listening involves attention to content and to feeling. It involves listening for relationships among ideas as well as among people. Listening entails decision making. When should a question be answered by the facilitator and when should it be turned back to the individual or the group? What is the best response to an incorrect or partially correct comment? When should the facilitator intervene with a question or a focusing comment? These questions are an important part of the listening process. Above all, facilitator comments during and at the conclusion of the discussion should clearly recognize the contributions made by individual members of the group. To be successful, the facilitator needs skills in careful and active listening.

Organizing and Structuring

Although the case discussion may seem less controlled than a lecture, there are numerous opportunities for the facilitator to give form and structure to the discussion. During the course of the discussion, she or he can provide or ask for brief summary statements to highlight divergent points of view or underline convergence, to indicate what has been accomplished and what remains to be done. He or she can use the blackboard or flip chart to highlight the emerging organization of the discussion in a large group or encourage participants to do so in a small group. At the Harvard Business School, chalkboards seem to have a pattern of their own: facts of the case, varying explanations of the problem, possible solutions, potential consequences. Most teachers are much less thoughtful in what they record or fail to record on the board during either lecture or discussion!

Avoiding Common Problems

In spite of leadership from a skilled facilitator, discussions occasionally go awry. Although all of the factors that contribute to an effective discussion cannot be controlled — the case, the participants, the time of day — there are some common problems that can be avoided (Napell, 1976):

- Insufficient "wait time": "Wait time" is the time between asking a question and accepting an answer as correct or answering the question ourselves.
- Rapid reward: Responding "right, good" to the first answer offered may cut off further analysis of the issue.
- Programmed answers: Leading questions discourage thoughtful responses. These questions may also give participants the idea that their opinions are not of interest, that the discussion is really a game of "guess what I am thinking."
- A classroom climate that discourages risk taking: The following non-facilitative behaviors may make students feel that it is not safe to make an error: talks constantly; adds comments to each idea posed by a member of the group; rephrases each participant's comment; serves as final arbiter in all decision-making; interrupts, intimidates, ridicules.
- Closed questions: Although they may be necessary in establishing a data base for discussing a case, once the base is clarified, closed questions should be used judiciously.

Conclusion

The subtleties of leading discussion are almost infinite, and even experienced facilitators continuously strive for improvement. Nevertheless, the dynamics of the process are robust, and a sound basic approach—a few carefully formulated open questions and a supportive atmosphere of collaborative inquiry—will reliably lead to a satisfying outcome. Given the all too rare opportunity, faculty members are usually eager to talk about teaching; and engaging cases about teaching dilemmas give them a stimulating, productive, and enjoyable way to do so while providing a chance to experience new approaches to classroom learning.

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Other Resources

AAHE Teaching Initiative

Pat Hutchings is heading a new project to develop cases about college teaching and learning, including workshops on case writing. For information or to order cases, contact Pat: One Dupont Circle, Suite 600, Washington, DC 20036.

Center for Case Studies in Education, Pace University.

The Center has developed a series of cases for use in preservice and inservice teacher education. Contact Rita Silverman at (914) 422-4321.

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Section IV

Teaching Cases for Use in Faculty/Instructional Development

As LuAnn Wilkerson and John Boehrer have indicated in the preceding article, teaching cases can be extremely useful in faculty/instructional development. Because of increased interest in the use of cases and because of feedback that suggests that *To Improve the Academy* should continue to provide some practical materials that can be reproduced simply and used, we have included some teaching cases.

"The Case of Edwina Armstrong" by Rita Silverman and William Welty is appropriate for stimulating faculty members' critical thinking about a variety of issues related to teaching effectiveness, particularly issues of cultural diversity. In "Just Tell Us What You Want," Marilla Svinicki focuses on issues that arise when an instructor adopts innovative teaching approaches for which students have not been properly prepared. "See You on Wednesday!" by Elizabeth Fideler and Deanna Yameen is designed to create discussion about the diverse student needs that present themselves in college classrooms, particularly in the community college setting. Emily Wadsworth, in "The Case of the Missed Exam," raises issues about instructors' cultural awareness and difficulties that can arise when two cultures collide in the instructional context. In "How Can I Be Heard?" LuAnn Wilkerson, using the small group problem-based tutorial in medical school as the setting, raises a variety of questions related to student participation in small groups. The last two cases focus on the teaching experiences of Professor Bill Jasper. In "Bill Jasper's First Night," Nick Brockunier, Alan Heffner, and Barbara Millis create the bases for discussion of teaching effectiveness for the beginning instructor. Ken Zahorski has written "The Return of Bill Jasper" as an extension of the previous case to focus on issues related to teaching effectiveness for an experienced professor, in this case, Bill Jasper, after he has had some teaching experience.

Each of the first six cases is followed by a brief discussion entitled "Use of the Case" that describes how the case has been or could be used in a workshop with faculty. The actual cases have been printed on pages separate from the discussion of their use so that each one can be readily reproduced as a resource within itself. The last case, "The Return of Bill Jasper," has no discussion of its possible use, partly because it can be used in conjunction with "Bill Jasper's First Night," but mostly because it provides an opportunity for readers to be imaginative in thinking about how it might be used in a faculty/instructional development workshops.

These cases reflect a variety of purposes and approaches for the use of cases. The discussion of the cases makes it clear, however, that the teaching case is not just a way to make workshops more interesting and entertaining but is a carefully planned instructional strategy designed to achieve specific workshop objectives. It is hoped that these cases and the accompanying discussion of their use will stimulate ongoing discussion about how cases can best be used in faculty/instructional development.

The Case of Edwina Armstrong

Rita Silverman

Pace University

William M. Welty

Pace University

Edwina Armstrong, assistant professor of psychology, pushed her glasses up into her hair and massaged the bridge of her nose as she listened to Shirlee Jasper's complaints.

"There's a problem here that I don't understand. I never even heard of an RW grade before. I have a 3.3 average, and I'm set to graduate in May. Why are you doing this to me?"

Edwina had only learned of the RW grade herself this past fall. This was her third year at Metropolitan University, a private college of about 16,000 students located in a large urban center in the northeastern part of the country. While having lunch in the faculty room in September, an English professor had suggested to a colleague in the economics department that he give a student with poor writing skills a grade of RW. When Edwina had asked what that stood for, the English professor had said, "It means 'remedial/writing'—the student has to spend a semester in the writing center with a tutor. When you give an RW grade, you are expected to send examples of the student's work along with your comments to the writing center. After the student completes whatever remedial work the director and the tutor have assigned, the RW grade is changed to the letter grade you would have assigned. So, if you would have given a student a B if his writing weren't so dreadful, you assign an RW-B. If the student doesn't go to the writing center, the RW become an F. It's a pretty big incentive to the students to come to the center. There's also RR, for remedial/reading, and RM, for remedial/math. Students then have to go to the skills center for tutoring in reading comprehension or math. Usually, only the computer and economics people give RM grades."

When Edwina checked, she discovered that all the remedial grades were explained in the faculty handbook, in the student handbook and in the university catalog. "It was the kind of thing you would miss, if you weren't looking for it," she thought, since for two years she had been unaware that she had the RW or RR option.

Now, she found herself saying to Shirlee, "The RW grade is explained in the catalog. If you didn't know what it meant, why did you wait until March to ask me about it? You've had your grades since January. When I turned in grades, I sent samples of your work and my assignments to the writing center. I expected you to follow up."

Shirlee responded, "I've come by your office a couple of times, but you were never here. This is the first time you've been here."

Edwina resisted the temptation to tell the student that her office hours were posted on her door and that the student could have phoned the department and left a message if she had really wanted to talk with her. Telling the student what she should have done wasn't going to have much payoff at this point. Instead, she repeated her earlier comments.

"Shirlee, every time you turned in a paper last semester, I told you that you had a problem with your writing. The RW grade should not have come as a surprise."

"How come no one else ever gave me an RW? I have a 3.3 average, and no one ever said I had a writing problem before you."

"What's your major?"

"Information systems."

"Don't you have to write papers for your courses?"

"Not really. The last papers I wrote were in my com and lit courses."

"And how did you do in those courses?"

"OK. I got Cs, I think."

"Then, how could you have a 3.3?"

"I took them at the community college before I transferred here. Transfer grades don't count in your average. My IS grades are all As and Bs."

"Shirlee, I think you have a problem with writing. I don't see how you'll be able to hold a job unless your skills improve dramatically. It would be terrible to let you graduate thinking you have all the skills you need when your writing is so poor."

"Look, that's just your opinion. And, I'm not sure you know what good writing is. You're a psychology professor, not English."

"Shirlee, I'm willing to let someone in the English department read your work and decide if I'm right or not. I don't think it's fair to you to not deal with this."

"What's not fair would be to keep me from graduating, just because you don't like the way I write."

"Liking how you write is not the issue. The issue is . . . "

"Sure it is. How many RWs did you give last semester?"

"I'm not sure. Why does that matter? The only one that matters is the one I gave to you."

"You gave seven RWs out of nineteen students in the class. What do you think that says? That one-third of the class are bad writers or that you don't like the way they write?"

"I guess it says that I care about the quality of students' writing. Writing is a reflection of students' thinking. It's an essential tool skill. You **need** to learn to be a better writer."

"Are you telling me you aren't going to let me graduate until I take a writing course?"

"Perhaps we can work something out. There are still two months until graduation."

Shirlee was out of her chair before Edwina had finished her sentence. "No way, lady." she said as she left Edwina's office.

Two days later, John Chambliss, chair of the psychology department, stopped by Edwina's office.

"Have a minute?"

"Sure, John. Come on in." Edwina lifted a pile of student papers from the only chair in her tiny office and motioned for him to sit down.

"We have a problem, Eddy."

John looked so serious that Edwina immediately repressed the temptation to joke about his use of "we." Instead she asked, "What's up?"

"Shirlee Jasper came to see me. It seems that she's checked into the RW grades you gave last semester. She's pretty upset."

"I know. I saw her on Monday. What do you mean, she checked the grades?"

"Did you realize that you gave RW grades only to minority and foreign students?"

Edwina paused. Then, slowly, she responded, "No . . . actually, I hadn't thought about it. I was teaching the Psych of Adjustment class, and I required a lot of papers. I had just found out about the RW grade, and it seemed like a good option for students who were having problems expressing themselves in writing. I didn't analyze who those students were by color or anything."

"Well, Shirlee did. It seems that three of the RWs went to African-

American students, two were Hispanic, one was from Egypt, and one from Korea."

"Oh, damn. You know, John, I really thought I was doing the best thing for the students. None of the seven could write worth a damn. I thought I was doing them a favor. If I had graded them on their work alone, most would have gotten Ds. This way I could grade them without punishing them for poor writing skills. Boy, was I wrong."

"I don't think you were wrong. I agree with you that students need to be able to write. It seems to me that lots of my students don't write well. I should probably use the RW grade myself."

"But, Shirlee's making it sound like my behavior was racist."

"Shirlee's argument is that you don't like how minority students write. She said something about you expecting them to conform to a standard that was unacceptable to people of color."

"Don't be ridiculous, John. You know me better than that."

"Of course I do. I didn't say that. I was just telling you what Shirlee said. And, the evidence she has accumulated is compelling."

"I guess I'm in real trouble, huh?"

"I don't know. I think we need to figure out how to handle this before it blows up into a major issue. At least Shirlee's going through channels. She started with you and then came to me. We need to resolve it before she takes it to anyone else." Chambliss paused, and Edwina knew he was trying to figure out what to do. After a minute, he asked, "Have you given RW grades before?"

"This is the first semester I've used the option."

"Did you give them in your other classes?"

"Not in my two intro sections—I use multiple choice exams there. But, I did give some in my social psych class."

"To minority students?"

"I'll have to check to be sure, but I don't think you're going to like what I find."

"Why don't you confirm those grades and get back to me. It would be good if there wasn't a pattern. And then we'll have to figure out what to do, since Shirlee isn't going to let this rest, and I told her I'd get back to her within the week. I'm not sure what action will satisfy her at this point, but we've got to come up with something."

Edwina nodded, and John stood up and headed for the door. Edwina stopped him. "John, the students I gave RW grades to **really** couldn't write."

John paused in the doorway of her office. "I don't doubt that, Eddy. But the question people will ask is: Could all of your white students write?"

Use of the Case entitled "Edwina Armstrong"

Like the other cases in this series, "Edwina Armstrong" was developed to be discussed in a faculty development experience. Its purpose is to stimulate faculty members to reflect critically on Edwina's situation and to share with colleagues their thoughts about the issues raised by the case. The case was written to encourage experienced college faculty to reflect on their own teaching practices and to use this critical reflection as a guide to an analysis of this situation and to suggestions for what good college teaching practices should apply here.

To do this in a discussion format requires that the discussion leader plan carefully how she/he will lead the discussion. We suggest that there are four elements of pre-discussion planning for the case discussion leader—determining the **teaching/learning objectives**; understanding the **blocks of discussion**—the issues the case raises—and deciding which of these blocks she/he wishes to emphasize; planning a **question outline**—a set of questions that will encourage discussion of key issues and that will lead to achieving the teaching objectives; and planning a **board outline**—a plan for what the chalkboard or flip charts might look like at the end of the discussion. Although no good discussion can be controlled so that it proceeds as neatly as one's plans, a good general framework to have in mind in any problem-centered case like this one is to: 1) determine the facts; 2) identify the problems; 3) suggest solutions, both short and long-term; and 4) evaluate the solutions. If the discussion leader can lay this framework over the objectives, blocks of discussion, question and board outlines, he/she will have captured the essence of pre-planning for a case discussion.

To illustrate, we can imagine that we wanted to use this case to encourage faculty to think more critically about cultural diversity on our campus. The blocks of discussion might be:

- Grading
- Changing grades
- Special grade for writing—RW
- Writing
- How to recognize bad writing
- How to teach good writing
- Faculty-student relations
- Teaching practices
- Feedback to students
- Student conferencing
- Faculty-administration relations
- Racism

It might be best to start the discussion with a broad, fact-seeking, problem-identification question. "Our heroine here, Edwina Armstrong, thinks she may be 'in real trouble.' Is she? Should she be worried about this situation?" Such a question will lead to responses that will elicit the facts of the case (main players and their relationships, grading system information, remedial writing system, course information, etc.) and that will expose the wide variety of issues the case raises. Questions in the solution/evaluation stage would press on Shirlee's charge of racism. "Now that we understand better what is going on in this situation, what do you think of Shirlee's charge of racism? How would you suggest Edwina answer her? Edwina's chair, John Chambliss, seems inclined to pacify Shirlee. What do you do about that? What if Shirlee goes to the Dean? How does Edwina defend herself? Does she want this battle to be escalated?" To keep track of all this, the board categories might be:

- Situation
- Problems
- Actions

We would encourage you to try leading a discussion of the case using your own objectives and your own set of questions. If the case is rich enough, there will be many ways to organize a discussion. We wish you lively and productive discussions!

Just Tell Us What You Want

Marilla Svinicki

The University of Texas at Austin

Mike Smith was assigned a history section of one of those writing across the curriculum courses, the kind where he was supposed to introduce students to the joy of writing as a learning experience. On top of that, it was a required state history course the contents of which most students had in high school. So he was pretty sure students would be coming into the course with bad attitudes right off the bat. But he loved his subject and knew how exciting it could be once you understood the mysteries and problem-solving aspects of history instead of just concentrating on learning facts. He was determined to introduce his students to that aspect of the discipline.

To do this, he decided to use some fairly innovative techniques for teaching history as well as writing. First of all, since most of the students were in-state and already knew something about the geography and popular myths of the state, he could set them to researching how place names and myths came about, all the time concentrating on the process of historical research rather than memorizing facts. Then he decided to have them interview and write journals about long-time residents of the state and how their personal histories reflected the traditional state history. Instead of regular history texts, he got copies of old magazines and newspapers from the area and had students read and draw conclusions about the life and times of the ordinary people based on what was considered important enough to print. Then he was going to have them use the same process with current newspapers and magazines.

He thought all these things would be a lot more interesting than the usual recitation of facts that constituted the bulk of most history courses. He was really quite excited about the course plans. About three weeks into the course, the first "exam" was scheduled. It, too, was innovative. Instead of multiple choice, true-false facts, he asked the students to reflect on the significance of events in the period they had just been analyzing. They were to speculate on what would have happened had certain conditions been different. Their performance wasn't very good, but he chalked it up to a lack of experience with this type of exam and assured them that they would do better next time—not good enough for them, however! The students were definitely up in arms over the exam grades, and there was quite a confrontation in class with three of them complaining about Mike's unorthodox approach.

Mike left class quite shaken, but determined that his new procedures would stay because they were intended to get the students to think instead of just memorize. A few days later, the department chair called Mike into her office and said that the irate students had complained to her as well. Their complaints seemed to center on their inability to see how they were being evaluated and where the course was headed. They felt at sea because they didn't feel they were learning any history at all. Mike never answered their questions and was impatient with them when they asked for clarification. And these weren't shlock students who were complaining; they were solid students with good academic records.

"Just what are you doing in that class, Mike?" challenged the chair.

Use of the Case entitled "Just Tell Us"

The main focus of this case is the problem that instructors have when they try to adopt an innovative instructional format for which the students have not been prepared. There are two major sets of issues related to the problem. The first deals with what happens between the instructor and students. When these issues are the desired focus, questions to guide the discussion might include:

1. What does an instructor do if his/her methods are different from student expectations?
2. What effect does an unusual teaching/testing procedure have on students?

Issues and sub-questions that should come out include:

- student patterns of learning and preparation.
- student developmental stages and what happens when they are confronted with challenges.
- ways of easing students into new learning methods.
- ways and times to introduce new instructional methods.
- appropriateness of innovation in various parts of the course.
- appropriateness of innovation in testing.
- informing students about what they are getting before they register.

A second major issue in this case has to do with departmental lines of communication and how they can be handled. In this case we have students complaining to the chair who then calls the faculty member in for a talk. The overall guiding questions to focus the discussion might include:

1. What is the appropriate avenue for student complaints about teaching?
2. What should the chair do if students complain? And how should an instructor respond?

Issues that should be addressed if this focus is raised include:

- role of the chair.
- appropriate grievance procedures in a department under different problem circumstances.
- relationships between instructors, students and administrators.
- appropriate procedures once a complaint has been registered.
- relationships between the chair and faculty members.
- involvement of other faculty in day-to-day teaching decisions.
- whether chairs should be forewarned about changes.

- how a faculty member can respond to challenges to his or her methods.

In facilitating case discussion, I prefer to have the participants work in small groups initially to discuss the situation and voice their opinions. Then the large group discusses the case in response to questions that I pose. An interesting way of approaching this case is to have different groups represent the different constituencies, faculty member, chair, and students. Each group identifies a desired outcome and suggested ways of achieving that outcome. The three can then be brought back together for a discussion. The need to represent a different perspective often makes the discussion more insightful for each participant, particularly if the group is very homogeneous. With this case it is easy for faculty to blame the students quickly for being too rigid. By having to represent the students' perspective, at least one group gets experience in seeing things from the students' point of view.

The Case of the Missed Exam

Emily C. Wadsworth

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Professor Oliver W. Holmes has taught for many years and has come to the conclusion that the students in his American Government general education course do their best work if he is very precise about his expectations of them. In line with this philosophy, Professor Holmes requires that everyone take the final examination on the day that it is scheduled. The only excuse for missing the examination is an illness that requires a trip to the doctor. Thus, he will give a make-up final exam only if the student brings in a doctor's excuse.

Fall term Jose Acevedo did not attend the last day of class, did not sit for the final examination, and did not contact Professor Holmes. Jose then appeared in Dr. Holmes' office a few days after the beginning of the spring term. He wanted to make arrangements to take the final that he had missed. Dr. Holmes first asked Jose for his doctor's excuse. Jose explained that he was not sick. His uncle on his mother's side of the family had died, and he was attending the funeral in Mexico on the day of the final examination.

What should Dr. Holmes do? Why? What issues are involved?

Use of the Case entitled "Missed Exam"

When I do workshops for faculty on cultural awareness, I conclude the workshop with some case studies. Each of the cases presents a classroom situation in which two cultures collide. The purpose of the cases is to demonstrate that when cultures do conflict, there is no appropriate and formulaic response. Instead, faculty members must evaluate each situation on its own merits and make their own decisions.

Often the cultural collision occurs because students behave appropriately out of their own cultural context and that behavior conflicts with the cultural assumptions of the professor. The central question then becomes to what extent should the instructor or institution accommodate the students' perspectives and to what extent should the professor or institution expect the students to adapt to the expectations of the dominant U.S. culture.

At the beginning of the workshop participants agree to some ground rules including:

- Everyone will listen respectfully until speakers have finished speaking;
- One person will speak at a time;
- No one will make derogatory comments about any other person or culture.

Participants learn characteristics of the communication patterns of culturally sensitive persons and work with these ideas throughout the workshop. People who have developed a culturally sensitive perspective:

- know their own cultural assumptions;
- do not make value judgments about culture in others;
- respect others' differences;
- ask explicit questions;
- listen actively until the other person finishes;
- allow extra time in communication;
- negotiate culture individually.

The principles of culturally sensitive communication and the ground rules are important parts of the debriefing of the cases.

In presenting each case, I ask small groups to discuss the issues illustrated in the case based on what they have learned about cultural differences, culturally sensitive communication, and their own expertise. They are asked to identify the issues, suggest a course of action for the professor, and present a summary of their case and conclusions to the large group. The small group discussion takes about ten to fifteen minutes.

During the debriefing period there are two things to watch for. Sometimes participants become very emotional about what they believe to be the right solution. At the other extreme, participants may gloss over the seriousness of the cultural conflict. In the first instance, the facilitator should be prepared to allow the strong emotions to vent. The emotional release will, of course, take place within the context set up with the original ground rules. Additionally, the facilitator may wish to list each position that is presented on a flip chart or chalkboard. Participants then visually see their positions taken seriously. Once the emotion is pretty well verbalized, the facilitator can go back and ask the group to work through the assumptions in each of the ideas. In the second instance, when participants gloss over the seriousness of the conflict, the facilitator will want to probe the solutions and issues to push the participants to a deeper understanding of the cultural conflict. Here skill using questions that force participants to rethink their ideas will be the facilitator's most useful tool. These questions might include:

- Can you broaden that?
- Can you give an example?
- What is the opposite of that?
- I'm not clear about how that connects.
- What do you mean by. . .?
- Can you elaborate a bit?
- What details support your point?
- Why is that significant?
- How does that fit into the larger context?

In both instances referring to the characteristics of culturally sensitive communication will also move participants to a better understanding of the cases.

See You on Wednesday!

Elizabeth Fideler

Massachusetts Bay Community College, Wellesley Hills, MA

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Massachusetts Bay Community College, Wellesley Hills, MA

The first class meeting seemed to go smoothly enough. I went in, introduced myself, and ran through the course syllabus and calendar. The students seemed pretty much like the students I taught at State U—maybe a little older. They asked the same questions about how long the papers should be and which books to buy. They made no comments about the journal assignment for the next class. They filled out my survey readily enough. In fact, the class ended twenty minutes early.

In my eight years of teaching at State U, I never saw anything like the survey responses I received from this class. Can community college students be that different? I just don't know how I'm going to cope.

I used the same survey I used at State U with exactly the same directions: "I'm just looking for some information to get a feel for the class. Tell me: 1) why you are taking this class, and 2) what you want me to know about you. Please be honest. You don't have to sign your name if you'd rather not."

Then I read their responses. What did I get myself into? What am I going to do on Wednesday?

Take a look at the responses for yourself:

- *Learn to write very, very well.*
- *I want you to know is that the main reason for me to learn, is because I wanna go to computer afterwards.*
- *This is my first class in college. Since I graduated I wanted to try writing to see if I didn't have the ability.*
- *I am a international student. Sometimes I don't speak or tell what I want to say well.*
- *I want to how to use research information then write paper.*

- *To enter to the nursing program, and have a good abilities.*
- *You should know that I have a learning disable.*
- *I have a Leaning Disability in Reading and I think my writing is Poor.*
- *I would like to prove to myself that I am am now ready to be a serious student and that I can get an A in this class.*
- *I failed out of school and it has taken me a long time to get the guts to try again. I really want to do well.*
- *I have taken this course last semester and wrote three essay.*
- *A lot of things come very easily to me but what does not I become easily frustrated which makes it that much harder. I have to read lips. I am slightly tone deaf.*
- *I would like to learn how to get my thoughts down in an organized fashion. I would like my writing to be impressive and express how I feel.*
- *I would like to write a paper on my own that really makes sense.*
- *I want to be able to write a good essay, or other papers I might have to write in my college days.*
- *I want to be prepared for the other courses for my college education. I want to improve my writing skills.*
- *I'd like read different kinds of books and I want to try to like writing.*
- *I want to learn to read and think about a situation or article and know what to write about.*

Use of the Case entitled "See You on Wednesday!"

Believing that we must build professional collaboration into our own work if we expect students to work collaboratively and that the improvement of teaching and learning begins with inquiry, the two of us, a faculty developer and a learning specialist at Massachusetts Bay Community College (MBCC), worked on the case, the workshop design, and our authors' notes over a four-month period. Our collaboration began in AAHE's workshop for case authors in May 1991, where we scrutinized a sample case written by Pat Hutchings and learned how teaching cases were being introduced at other schools. We were particularly influenced by what the University of Maryland's University College does for orientation of new faculty.

We wrote the case with one major purpose in mind: to stimulate inquiry into teaching/learning issues at MBCC. Our objective was to use the case to socialize MBCC full and part-time faculty to the value of inquiry into and dialogue about teaching and learning. We planned to use the case in a workshop to: a) spark discussion by providing the structure to talk about instruction in a community college classroom, and b) model what we are encouraging participants to do. We wanted our case to raise some major points about teaching and learning in general and in our community college in particular.

We decided to organize the case around the diverse student needs that present themselves in a typical community college classroom. In fact, we let student voices tell part of the story. Half of the case consists of brief student responses to a questionnaire that one of the authors had used to get to know her classes at the college. We think that letting MBCC students speak for themselves gives the case immediacy, authenticity, and robustness.

Beyond specifying a writing course, we made the case fairly generic. The protagonist is a writing instructor because: 1) the student responses—from a writing class—wouldn't make sense otherwise, and 2) we hoped MBCC instructors would recognize how writing supports the curriculum. Our instructor speaks in the first-person and is only identified by previous teaching experience, not by age, gender, or race. We have provided just enough detail for readers to know that the person is not a new teacher but is new to the community college, and wonders whether usual strategies will be effective and what else can/should be done. By being as open as possible, we hoped to reach as many of the workshop participants as possible.

For our purposes, with the usual time constraints, a mini-case seemed best. A sketch of what transpired at the first class meeting could be readily comprehended; participants' myriad reactions and interpretations could add needed complexity.

Both the case and the workshop were organized around the notions that instructors have to know who is in their classes and need to employ active learning strategies in order for good teaching and learning to occur. Ever mindful of parallels, we structured the workshop to foster participants' active involvement in the inquiry process. Our directions for the groups were to: 1) read both pages of the case; 2) describe the class; 3) suggest in-class activities or homework the instructor might assign, given the student population in the class; and 4) discuss how the instructor can assess student understanding/learning at any point. As with the case, we tried to give participants just enough detail in the questions for small group discussion to get them to identify the problems (and possible solutions) for themselves.

Upon completion of the case discussion, we conducted follow-up. Curious to learn whether our inductive approach was successful, we included a brief meta-analysis of the case workshop process. After the discussion, we used a questionnaire that asked what was the most important thing participants learned about teaching and learning from the workshop and whether they found the case an effective way to trigger talk about teaching and learning. Most agreed that the case was a good springboard for discussions because it presented a real problem and elicited a wide variety of reactions.

How Can I Be Heard?

LuAnn Wilkerson

UCLA School of Medicine

Today is the second day of five one-hour tutorials on *The Case of the Fainting Soccer Player.* The six first-year medical students have been struggling to explain the sequence of events experienced by the 17 year old woman in the case who collapses while playing soccer with subsequent ventricular fibrillation and coma. An older female student, Pat, had spoken little during the first 15 minutes of discussion as the group alternately considered the role of brain and heart in the patient's collapse. Finally, Pat quietly commented.

"I read that arterial venous malformation is a major cause of seizures in 15 to 24 year olds. Often this condition shows up during athletic activity when demand exceeds capacity."

"I read that profound syncope can cause seizures," George quickly asserted, and the discussion was off on electrical activity in the brain and the heart, the definition of seizure, and the use of lidocaine in this case. The faculty tutor neither encouraged nor discouraged these avenues of exploration. Pat appeared to be listening closely to the brain versus heart debate and in a pause in the exchange, put in her vote for a congenital vascular malformation as the initiating event.

Once again her suggestion failed to attract any attention and the group continued to puzzle over the possible sequence and relationship of events. Did the young woman in the case suffer a seizure which caused her to fall? Or did she have a cardiac event which caused her to fall? How could a seizure cause ventricular fibrillation? These questions led to a discussion of parasympathetic control of heart rate.

At last, George suggested that everyone should propose possible explanations, which he would write on the board. Jim volunteered epilepsy; however, he could not explain how it might cause fibrillation and ended by abandoning his proposal: "I don't think it is epilepsy." Debby proposed fibrillation as the primary problem but had difficulty explaining the cause of the fibrillation. Pat volunteered next. "I still think it is a congenital heart problem and it could cause more problems later if it's not corrected now."

"It's not a heart problem," insisted Jim.

At the board, George paused in his writing to ask, "If it is congenital, what could it be?"

Pat responded quickly. "Here is a table of common defects in *Harrison's Textbook of Medicine.* I'm not sure how to decide which exact one it is but we could look at the major symptoms associated with each and compare that to the case."

"Let's go back to the brain," suggested Jim.

Use of the Case entitled "How Can I Be Heard?"

At medical and veterinary schools around the world, problem-based learning that involves students in discussion of cases is becoming an important approach to professional education. Although such discussion can occur in the large group setting, most schools using this approach have students work in small groups in order to increase the opportunity for student-directed discussion. In a problem-based course, students work in groups of six to ten with a faculty or peer tutor who is largely a facilitator rather than a group leader. The shift for faculty tutors from a Socratic, teacher-directed form of discussion to student-directed discussion is a difficult one. In addition, the interaction of students within the small group format is significantly different from that which occurs in a large lecture hall.

"How Can I Be Heard?" is a snapshot from a small group, problem-based tutorial in the first course of the first year medical student curriculum at Harvard Medical School. The case, written for use in a 1 1/2 hour workshop focused on increasing attention to group process, is taken from the observation of an actual problem-based tutorial and written with the cooperation of the faculty tutor and the female student involved. It is intended to provoke discussion of group interaction, the role of gender and age in influencing student interaction, and the strategies that can be used by a faculty tutor to resolve conflict among students. The case can be used in either of the formats described in the article in this volume: "Using Cases about Teaching for Faculty Development."

In the situation described, students are working with a patient case as a stimulus for learning the anatomy that underlies the clinical dilemma and how to reason about a structural problem. This session is the second of five one-hour tutorials on the case. In between each session, students are expected to pursue learning issues that they have identified during the discussion of the case. They come to subsequent tutorials for the purpose of teaching one another. The questions to be considered include:

- Why is Pat having difficulty being heard?
- If you were the tutor, what would you do?

Bill Jasper's First Night

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University of Maryland University College

Alan G. Heffner

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Editor: Barbara Millis

University of Maryland University College

Bill Jasper was teaching his first course for University of Maryland University College, a course in "Productivity and Quality Control." Because he did not want to waste a lot of time the first night of class, he immediately introduced himself and said a few words about his background. Then he launched into the course requirements, explaining that students without the catalog prerequisites for the course would have to drop. "I believe in student attendance," he stated firmly. "I will take 1% off the final grade for every class you miss, and I will not give make-up exams."

Next, he discussed the class schedule (Exhibit 1). As he handed it out, Bill told his thirty-three students: "Don't worry about your grade; I'll curve the exams so that no one will flunk." He also explained that he hadn't had time to develop the complete schedule beforehand, but that he would distribute one later in the term.

"So far, so good," thought Bill, but he was disturbed by the unexpected "traffic flow" in his class. Six students straggled in as much as twenty-five minutes late. He decided that during the break he would explain to the late comers what they had missed. He felt rather insulted that several times students got up and left the classroom with their books.

About forty minutes into the session, several students raised their hands. Bill called first on an earnest-looking, elderly woman near the back of the room. "How many exams will we have?" she asked. "When will you give them?" Bill was a little surprised, since he thought he had covered that information, but he went over it again.

"What about grading?" asked another student. "What if my term paper is late?" Bill responded that the final grade would be calculated as follows: 50% for exams, 30% for class participation, and 20% for the term paper. "The term paper must get to me on time," he stated. "I will take off one letter grade for each week your paper is late."

After answering all questions, Bill announced a ten minute break, during which he talked to a few of the late students. He was pleased to learn that one of them was involved in a productivity improvement program at her workplace and wanted to learn how to manage such a program. "Her overview of an actual work situation would be a terrific way to kick off next week's lecture," thought Bill, but as he called the class to order, he realized he had forgotten to ask the woman her name.

Now that the "logistical concerns" were out of the way, Bill began discussing the topics for the evening. To give the students a good course overview, he read the summary paragraphs from the chapters of the textbook. He also distributed a skeletal outline (Exhibit 2) of his introductory lecture. He moved along at a good clip. To obtain additional student input after he got few volunteers for his open-ended questions, he called for comments from a few students listed on the class roster. None of those responding seemed to have more than a minimal knowledge of the basics. Unfortunately, few of the students from the roster were in class, so Bill then started pointing at those seated near the front of the room for responses.

As Bill was launching into his favorite part of the lecture—how quality control and productivity need to mesh—a student raised his hand and said, "That isn't how it is in the real world where I work. All they want is quantity; they don't care about quality." Bill said that he knew this was a problem for many organizations, putting them in a vicious cycle of creating mediocre products, which then required more work later to correct problems. The student seemed satisfied. A few minutes later two students, one after the other, stood up, mumbling apologies about having to leave and walked out the door.

Bill plunged ahead, asking only a few questions. He was surprised at how fast he covered all the material he had prepared for the first night. That morning he had told his wife that he had enough material for at least two meetings, but when he reached the end of his final page of notes, he had to end the class about forty-five minutes early. "I guess there's no harm done," he thought. "I went over all the key points on the handout."

As Bill drove home, he reflected on his first night of teaching for

University College. When he was a student, he had felt that he could teach many of the classes better than some of his ivory-towered, removed-from-the-real-world teachers. But now that he had an opportunity to teach his own class, he wasn't so sure.

BILL JASPER'S FIRST NIGHT
EXHIBIT 1:
SYLLABUS

Instructor: Bill Jasper
Course: TEMN 350, Productivity and Quality Assurance
Section: 4031
Text: James H. Harrington. The Improvement Process: *How America's Leading Companies Improve Quality*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1987.

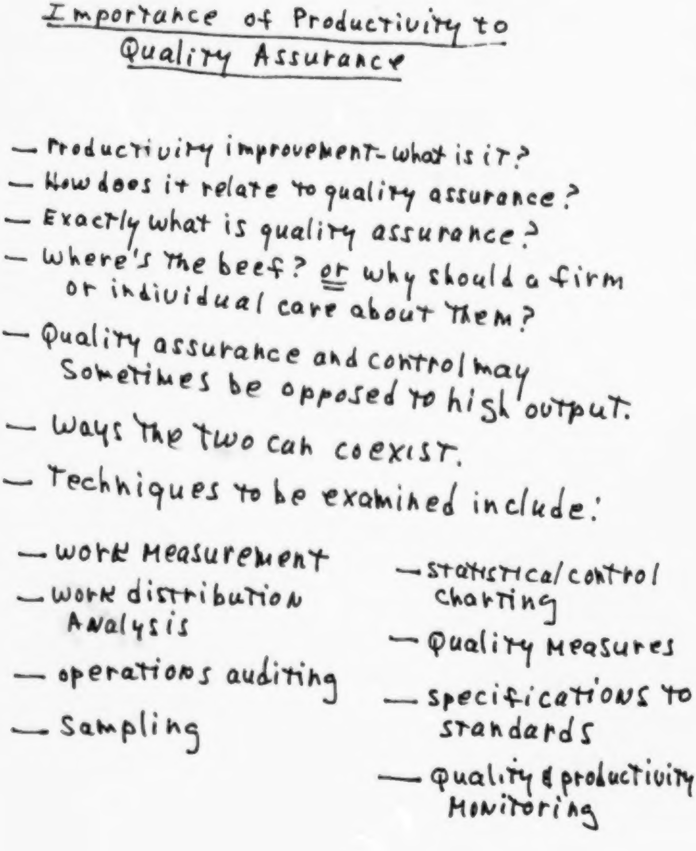
Schedule - First Half of Term

Date	Topics	Chapter Assignments
1/31	Introduction to course Importance of productivity improvement and quality assurance	
2/7	Introduction to productivity improvement The changing environment of work and organizations	1 & 2
2/14	Management and employee awareness and commitment	3 & 4
2/21	Evaluating and describing work and organizations Work measurement	5 & 6
2/28	Work-distribution analysis Operations auditing	7
3/7	Operations auditing results Quality control concepts	8
3/14	Midterm Exam - to be continued	

Requirements

Exams: Midterm and final
Term paper: 20 pages

BILL JASPER'S FIRST NIGHT
EXHIBIT 2:
LECTURE OUTLINE



Importance of Productivity to Quality Assurance

- Productivity improvement - what is it?
- How does it relate to quality assurance?
- Exactly what is quality assurance?
- Where's the beef? or why should a firm or individual care about them?
- Quality assurance and control may sometimes be opposed to high output.
- Ways the two can coexist.
- Techniques to be examined include:
  - work measurement
  - work distribution analysis
  - operations auditing
  - Sampling
  - statistical control charting
  - Quality measures
  - specifications to standards
  - Quality & productivity monitoring

Use of the Case entitled "Bill Jasper's First Night"

Barbara Millis

University of Maryland University College

Each semester about fifty new adjunct faculty at The University of Maryland University College receive a letter inviting them to our New Faculty Orientation. Because a major goal of the session is to get participants to reflect on the effective teaching of adult learners and because the case study has proved to be a useful approach for accomplishing this goal, the letter also asks potential participants to read and reflect on a case study that is enclosed. The case, entitled "Bill Jasper's First Night," is useful for focusing attention on issues related to getting a class off to a good start.

When using the case study, I try to model cooperative learning techniques, active learning, appropriate time on task, and respect for diversity. At the beginning of the three-hour orientation session, I greet each arrival with a welcoming smile and a playing card. The cards have been presorted into groups of six (e.g., six aces, six two's, etc.). I try to divide the teams evenly by gender and to mix faculty from various disciplines, just as in a traditional classroom faculty might form heterogeneous teams by mixing students by achievement level, gender, ethnic background, and age. To initiate the discussion of the case, I ask each faculty member to gather at a table with a tent card displaying the number of her/his playing card.

When faculty are seated in their respective teams, I explain, using an overhead projector, the procedures we will follow (for a description of the procedures, see Appendix A). The projected transparencies are also available as handouts at each table; on the tables we also put extra copies of the case. These are the instructions I give:

1. Take two minutes to review the case;
2. Prepare to discuss the first two questions as a whole group, with responses from any individual in any team;
3. After we conclude a five-minute group discussion on the two general questions about Bill's performance, begin working together on the specific question assigned to your team on the transparencies and the handouts. Be certain to introduce yourselves to other team members and to identify two people who will assume the roles of recorder and reporter. Each team should determine three major points about your specific question that your reporter can share with the whole group. Take twenty minutes for this exercise.

As the teams discuss their respective questions for twenty minutes, I circulate among them to monitor progress and to head off any potential problems, just as faculty would do in a cooperative classroom. I can also discover if any groups need extra time and encourage those finishing early to tackle another team's question.

The ideas generated by each group in response to their questions are typically recorded by each team on a flip chart or consolidated on an overhead transparency as they are reported out. After all teams (usually seven or eight) have reported, we distribute "The Return of Bill Jasper" for at-home reading as a way of encouraging ongoing collaboration among participants and further reflection about effective teaching in the initial stages of a course. (The case entitled "The Return of Bill Jasper" is also included in this volume immediately following "Bill Jasper's First Night.")

With a smaller number of participants, we use teams of four. In that case, we have the option of assigning the roles—a faster process—based on the suit of the cards. (e.g., I want the "heart" in each group to be the recorder and the "club" to be the reporter). This is a common cooperative learning technique called "Numbered Heads."

New Faculty Orientation concludes with an evaluation, a practice emphasizing the importance of feedback. Faculty consistently indicate that the case study session is the most valuable part of the evening. Comments usually indicate that faculty are well aware and appreciative of our modeling efforts.

BILL JASPER'S FIRST NIGHT

Appendix A

The University of Maryland University College New Faculty Orientation

General Instructions

Please consider using the suggested small group roles to help focus your discussions.

Each group should determine 2 major points they want to share with the larger group.

The recorder should note these points.

After all groups have finished, each reporter briefly explains the points.

Questions for All Groups to Discuss

1. Are there any grounds for Bill's uneasiness about the next class?
2. Did Bill do a good job? Why?

Group 1 and Group 5

How could Bill improve his syllabus?

Group 2 and Group 6

What course expectations, requirements, and grading policies should Bill establish in this case and how could he present them?

Group 3 and Group 7

How could Bill address the problems and concerns of older students and capitalize on their class-related experiences?

Group 4 and Group 8

What classroom procedures or policies should Bill initiate to avoid the difficult situations that arose?

Group Roles

Facilitator: Makes certain that all members have an opportunity to contribute constructively; monitors the time and helps the group stay on task.

Recorder: Carefully summarizes and records the group's ideas.
Reporter: Shares group's ideas with others.
Checker: Makes certain that all members understand the task(s) and their outcomes.

The Return of Bill Jasper

Kenneth J. Zahorski

St. Norbert College, DePere, WI

As Bill Jasper left his office and walked down the hall toward his classroom, he found it hard to believe that only a few months earlier he had begun teaching his first class at University College. A wistful smile played at the corners of his mouth as he thought back to that enlightening, but somewhat unsettling, experience. "I was greener than a spring apple," he muttered. "I wish I had known then what I know now."

Bill walked into his classroom, turned on the lights, and noting that it was a bit stuffy, opened a window. Nothing in the room took Bill by surprise. He had checked it out a few days earlier to make sure it suited his particular teaching needs. "Yes, this will do nicely," he thought. "The chairs are easy to move around, there's plenty of board space, and the lighting is good. It has a nice feel to it, too. I'm set."

Bill glanced at his watch again. He had wanted to give himself plenty of time to set up, and he noted with satisfaction that he still had about fifteen minutes before starting time. Remembering that last term two students had taken seats in his classroom by mistake, Jasper picked up a piece of chalk and printed his name, the number and title of his course, his office number and hours, and home telephone number on the board, just as he had presented this information on the first page of his syllabus. He then set up a small tape player to record his presentation so students signing up late might hear the session in its entirety. Finally, he walked over to the overhead projector and turned it on, just to make certain it was in good working order.

"Just in time," thought Jasper as the students began filing in. Bill smiled, welcomed them to "Productivity and Quality Control," and then stood by the door, greeting them warmly, and handing each a syllabus as he or she entered. He chuckled to himself as he noticed the looks of pleasant surprise on their faces.

During last term's first class period, Bill had taken roll in conventional fashion, simply reading down the roster list. This time around he wanted to

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take a more personal approach. Explaining to his students that he wanted the class to become a true learning community, he asked them to introduce themselves, sharing a little information about their personal and academic interests. Knowing some might feel more at ease if he started the process, Bill told them a little about himself, first describing his educational background and then explaining why he had gone into his field and what he liked most about teaching.

Jasper was pleasantly surprised by how warmly the students responded. One even observed, "You know, Mr. Jasper, it's nice being treated like a human being, rather than just a number and name on a roster." Bill now felt even more comfortable carrying out his preplanned second step toward getting to know his students. Passing out some half sheets of paper, he asked his class to jot down answers to a short list of questions. Among other things, he asked them about their reading background, their reasons for taking the course, and their concerns about it. Finally, he asked them to describe as concretely as possible the teaching-learning approaches, styles, and techniques which they felt helped them learn.

After Jasper collected the responses, he asked the class to take a closer look at the course syllabus, a thorough and handsome document into which he had put a great deal of time, thought, and effort. His own experience and a workshop on syllabus building had convinced him of the vital importance of this teaching tool, and he wanted to share his thoughts about it with his students. He began by discussing the syllabus as contract, but ended on a softer, more personal note, referring to it as a kind of "covenant" (but not of the "Lost Ark" he quipped) —a promise between student and teacher, teacher and student, demanding a joint effort toward fulfilling course objectives.

Bill had remembered from the first term how concerned his students had been about assignments, examinations, grade determination and other such practical nuts-and-bolts concerns, so he spent plenty of time going over these items, encouraging questions, and responding to them with sensitivity, patience, and thoroughness.

But Bill Jasper did not stop there. He also shared his teaching philosophy, candidly noting that only during the past term had he taken the time to actually think the subject through and come up with a kind of credo. Last term, Bill had discovered quite by accident that his students responded more enthusiastically to his assignments (and even seemed to do better on them) when he explained the teaching principles underlying them. This term Bill was going to tell them even more about his pedagogical approach, and the first class period seemed the perfect place to start.

Bill glanced at his watch. He had planned to spend about fifty minutes of his two-hour session on introductions and the syllabus, and that was just about as long as it had taken. "Time for a fifteen-minute break," Jasper told the class. "And be sure to see me if you have any questions."

During the break, Jasper fielded three or four questions, did a little visiting with a couple of other students, and then put his second-hour "teaching road map" on the board. About half way through the first term a senior colleague had mentioned this technique to Bill, and he had decided to try it. Much to his delight, he found that it not only helped students follow his presentation, but also kept him on track.

The outline reflected many hours of work on Jasper's part. He had rehearsed his material carefully, remembering with chagrin last term's first-class fiasco when he had to let his students out forty-five minutes early after running out of things to say. This time around he not only had good presentation notes but a list of questions he planned to ask his students as he went along. He was determined to get feedback early and regularly. Then, too, he wanted to establish an active learning mode at the very outset. He wanted to demonstrate immediately what subsequent classes were going to be like. He felt strongly that students ought to be given a chance to get the real flavor of his teaching style as soon as possible.

The second hour went as well as the first. Bill's practice and confidence paid dividends, and students seemed eager to respond when he asked them questions. Maybe it was just the particular chemistry of the group, but a comfortable atmosphere seemed to be forming and there was little of the stiffness and formality often associated with first meetings.

Bill brought the session to a close with a "One Minute Quiz," a simple, but effective device he had read about in a teaching handbook. "Please take out a sheet of paper," he said to his class, "and briefly respond to these two questions: (1) What was the most important point or theme of today's presentation? and (2) What was the most important point left unanswered?"

Bill collected the papers, pointing out he would not grade them, but would read them carefully and return them with brief written comments. He then reminded his students of their first assignment, and thanked them for their attentiveness, making sure he did not go overtime.

As Bill drove home, he had a good feeling about his first meeting. "One thing's for sure," he thought. "It went a lot smoother than my first class last term." Bill Jasper knew he still had a great deal to learn about teaching, but he also knew he had come a long way in a few short months. "Who said you can't teach an old dog new tricks!" he exclaimed to himself as he confidently moved through a starlit night rich with promise.

Reflection on the Use of "The Return of Bill Jasper"

This case was written to complement the previous case entitled "Bill Jasper's First Night." Because it picks up Bill Jasper's story after Professor Jasper has made some changes in his initial approach to teaching, it works well when it is compared to and contrasted with the earlier case. It can, however, stand on its own as a case designed to focus faculty on dimensions of effective teaching and specific strategies that can be incorporated both in planning a course and in conducting the initial class sessions.

For us, including "The Return of Bill Jasper" as the final case in this volume serves two purposes. First, of course, it provides the case as a resource for faculty/instructional developers looking for good cases to use in workshops or one-to-one consultations. At this point in the volume, however, we have chosen also to let it function as a stimulus for creative discussion and reflection. For this reason, it comes with no explicit directions for its use.

Having read several descriptions of the way cases in this volume have been used, you are now encouraged to reflect about how this case might be incorporated in instructional development activities, either by itself or in conjunction with the previous case. We encourage you to talk to colleagues and to think carefully about the issues in the case and the way discussion of it might be structured to address the issues. We are hopeful that the reflective process will yield not only excellent approaches and questions for use with the specific case but also additional important insights about appropriate use of cases in faculty/instructional development.

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